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ABSTRACT

This proceedings of the 1993 Asian Reading Conference contains the following 20 papers: "Adverse Effects of Lower Cognitive Processing Capacity on Achievement: What Can We Do?" (James M. Furukawa); "The Impact of Foreign Language Literacy on Higher Education in Thailand" (Uthai Piromruen); "Reading Achievement of Students in Selected Secondary Schools in Malaysia" (Safiah Osman); "Beginning Reading Instruction in India: An Appraisal" (Kuldeep Agarwal); "Literacy Instruction in Some Philippine Schools" (Patria Garcia-Aranas); "Why Do Japanese Children Read Books?: A Developmental Study of Conceptions on Book-Reading" (Kiyomi Akita and Takashi Muto); "Philosophy Is Also for Children: Teaching Reasoning Skills to Young Children" (Norma Lazaro-Jaramillo); "A Comparative Study of Opinions about Methods of Picture Book Reading in Japan and Taiwan" (Toshie Nakamura and Yasuchika Imai); "Implementing and Maintaining a Sustained Silent Reading Program in Secondary Classrooms" (Victoria Y. Hsui); "Confusion of Sounds" (Rajguru Rajendra Prasad); "Why Some Children Have Problems in Learning to Read and Spell in English" (Mary Rohl); "Support Teachers for Students with Reading Difficulties: Australian Research" (John Elkins); "Becoming Aware of World Cultures and Ways of Speaking through Literary Texts" (Maya Khemlani-David); "Response of Preschool Children to BAWAL as an 'Encouraging to Read Programme'" (Halimah Badioze Zaman); "Syntactic Awareness and Early Literacy" (Marion Milton); "The Language of Media: Student-Produced Films and Videos Stimulate Reading at All Levels" (Jeanne DeVaughn Dowd); "Characteristics of English Speaking Reading Instruction for the Visually Impaired on the College Level" (Yoshifumi Chijiiwa); "Teaching Reading in Refugee Camps on the Thai-Kampuchean Border" (Rita Yost Martin); "Differences in Kana and Kanji Processing by Native Japanese Speakers and Non-Native English-Speaking Learners of Japanese: A Summary of the Experiments" (Katsuo Tamaoka); and "Asian Conference on Reading: Closing Speech" (Donald A. Leton). (RS)

Proceedings of the Asian Reading Conference in Tokyo

ED 365 953

日本読書学会第37回研究大会発表資料集

1993

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ASIAN READING CONFERENCE IN TOKYO

Progress of Literacy in Asia

Date: August 3 (Tue) and 4 (Wed), 1993

Site: University of Tsukuba, Tokyo Campus

Under the auspices of:

The Japan Reading Association
Department of Japanese Language Education
University of Tsukuba,
3-29-1 Otsuka, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 112, JAPAN
☎ & Fax 81-3-3942-6837

日本読書学会第３７回研究大会

と　き	1993年８月３日（火）～８月４日（水）
ところ	筑波大学学校教育部
主　催	日本読書学会 〒112　東京都文京区大塚3-29-1 筑波大学学校教育部国語教育研究室内 ℡　03-3942-6837

日本読書学会第37回研究大会・アジア読書会議

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漢字単語の諸特性と読みの検討（Ⅰ）

○宮本友弘　吉田佐治子　（筑波大学心理学研究科）
上山良子　飯野礼子　（筑波大学人間学類）

問題

日本語の表記は主に仮名と漢字が併用されているが、特に、漢字は文字の複雑さ・多様さ、音訓という二重の読み方、表意性などから、日本語の特殊性を特徴づけているといえる。こうした漢字の特性は、読み(reading) の研究領域で注目され、近年、認知心理学の発展に伴い、その読みの機構や過程に関する多くの研究が提出されてきている。なお、ここでの読みとは、「単に視覚形態の音声化にとどまらず、その意味を抽出することまでをも含む」（海保・野村,1983)ものである。

従来、文字一般の読みに至るメカニズムとしては、心的辞書までのアクセスの経路の点で次の３つのモデルが提出されている。すなわち、⑴語の形態処理後、音韻処理を経て心的辞書にアクセスし、意味処理される音韻回路モデル、⑵語の形態処理後、心的辞書にアクセスし、意味処理される意味回路モデル、⑶語の形態処理後、音韻回路と意味回路の両方で心的辞書にアクセスする二重回路モデルである。

さて、漢字の読み過程については、斉藤(1982)がそれまでの漢字の読みに関する研究を概観している。それによれば、漢字と仮名の読み上げ課題や意味判断課題の反応潜時の比較実験の結果として、①漢字の読み上げが仮名よりも遅いこと、②漢字の読み上げや意味の抽出は音節数の影響を受けないが、仮名の読み上げは音節数の影響を受けることを根拠に、漢字の読みの処理が形態→意味→音韻の順序で、仮名のそれが形態→音韻→意味の順序で時間的に継起し、漢字は意味処理に、仮名は音韻処理に依存する程度が大きいと結論づけている。ただし、その依存する程度は刺激語の材料特性、課題事態、被験者の処理方略によって変動することともに、こうした系列処理モデルだけでなく、並列処理モデルの可能性も指摘している。とはいえ、こうした漢字と仮名の読み過程を先のモデルに対応づけると、漢字は意味回路モデル、仮名は音韻回路モデルで説明できる。こうした見解は、漢字が表意文字であること、また、仮名が表音文字あることに直観的に妥当し、広く支持されてきた。

しかしながら、仮名については音韻回路だけでは説明できない実験結果が提出されている。例えば、野村(1981)は仮名２文字と４文字で有意味語と無意味語をそれぞれ表記し、読み上げ課題での反応潜時を比較した結果、特に４文字での有意味語と無意味語に著しい差がみられた。音韻回路モデルからは、読み上げ課題では仮名は音韻処理後すぐに音声化されるので、字数が同じ場合、潜時に差はないと予測されるが、結果はこれに反するものであり、むしろ、単語の有意味性で差があったことは意味回路の関与を示唆するものである。また、広瀬(1984)は表記頻度は異なるが字数はほぼ等しい仮名単語で、カテゴリー判断での反応潜時を比較した結果、高頻度語がより速く判断された。この結果も意味回路の関与を示唆するもので、音韻回路モデルでは説明できない。

このようにして、仮名の読みの過程は音韻回路と同時に意味回路による並列処理と考えられる。すなわち、二重回路モデルが妥当であると考えられる。実際、仮名の読みの二重

回路モデルの検証が積極的に試みられている。例えば、Yamada, Imai, &Ikebe(1990)は、異なる文字数の仮名で有意味語と無意味語を表記し、語彙決定での反応潜時を比較した。その結果、被験者が文字数によって潜時が変わる群と変わらない群に分けられた。彼らは、前者の仮名の処理に意味回路が関与していることを指摘し、二重経路モデルを支持している。

こうした状況に対し、漢字については意味回路モデルが依然として支持されている。そこで、本研究では漢字の読みの処理において意味回路モデルが妥当であるかどうかを検討することを目的とする。すなわち、漢字の諸特性（頻度、長さ、読みのタイプなど）を操作し、意味経路と同時に音韻経路による処理が関与するかどうかを研究Ⅰ、Ⅱの一連の実験を通して探索する。なお、漢字のこうした特性を取り上げ、意味回路モデルを検討した研究は今のところみあたらない。

ここでは、漢字の諸特性のうち、頻度と長さ（文字数）を取り上げ、読み上げ課題での反応潜時にどのように影響するかを検討する。

方法

実験計画　2（単語の文字数）×2（単語の頻度）の被験者内計画。

被験者　大学生18名。

材料　実験で使用された刺激語は次のような事前調査に基づいて選定された。まず、辞書などからランダムに漢字2字の単語80語、4字の単語80語を採集した。その際、当て字や熟字訓などの特殊な読みのものは除外された。採集された160 語について、大学生10名を対象に各単語の読み仮名を記述させるとともに、当該の単語を見かける程度（以下主観的頻度と呼ぶ）を5段階（5がとてもよく見る、1がほとんど見ない）で評定させた。各単語の読み仮名の正解率と主観的頻度の平均を算出し、それらの分布から各条件20語づつを実験材料として選定した（表1）。なお、正解率はすべて.7以上であり、各単語は比較的容易に読めるものと考えられる。また、各条件の単語群の主観的頻度について1要因の分散分析を行ったところ有意差が認められ、多重比較の結果、2字高頻度語群＝4字高頻度語群＞2字低頻度語群＝4字低頻度語群であった。したがって、ここでの頻度要因の操作は妥当であると考えられる。

装置　実験に関する教示、刺激語の呈示にはパーソナル・コンピュータ（NEC9801RA)を使用した。

手続き　実験は個別に行われた。「Y」キーを押すだけでコンピュータの画面上の表示が刺激語→「声を出して読み上げて下さい」という教示→刺激語・・・以後、刺激後→教示の順に切り替わるようなプログラムを用意した。被験者は刺激語の読み方がわかかったら即座に「Y」キーを押し、その後の教示に従って刺激語を音読するように求められた。その際、刺激語の表示から「Y」キーを押すまでの時間（音読までの反応潜時）がコンピュータによって1/1000秒の単位で測定される。また、被験者の音声はカセットテープ・レコーダーで録音された。被験者は音読後、再び「Y」キーを押し、次の刺激語でも同様の試行を行う。したがって、被験者は以上の試行を練習用の単語5語、本実験用の刺激語80語について計85回繰り返すことになる。なお、刺激語はランダムに表示された。

表1　実験で使用された各条件の刺激語（カッコ内は各条件の単語群の主観的頻度の平均）

2字				4字			
高頻度 (4.48)		低頻度 (2.70)		高頻度 (4.48)		低頻度 (2.89)	
嫌悪	方向	稚児	補完	異口同音	大器晩成	馬耳東風	呉越同舟
臆病	脈拍	肝腎	雌雄	疑心暗鬼	右往左往	勧善懲悪	森羅万象
体系	恐喝	伴侶	肥沃	首尾一貫	感慨無量	不言実行	暖衣飽食
勤勉	迷信	逐電	夜光	支離滅裂	五里霧中	難攻不落	喜色満面
洗剤	簡潔	神髄	水星	前代未聞	天真爛漫	一挙両得	佳人薄命
当然	援助	教唆	副腎	単刀直入	波乱万丈	因果応報	渾然一体
宿題	万能	戒律	端麗	時代錯誤	優柔不断	我田引水	臥薪嘗胆
投稿	探検	片鱗	煩雑	油断大敵	和洋折衷	明鏡止水	天衣無縫
満員	冷酷	深紅	督促	言語道断	冠婚葬祭	起死回生	一騎当千
密室	妥当	屈託	所蔵	臨機応変	一部始終	意味深長	乾布摩擦

結果

被験者18名のうち、以下の者のデータを分析対象から除外した。①音声の録音状態が不備の者（３名）、②音読の結果から刺激語の読みの正解率が90%以下の者（４名）、③測定値が著しく分布からはずれる者（１名）。したがって、残り10名のデータが分析対象となる。ただし、正解率が.7以下であった「臥薪嘗胆」のデータ、および、コンピュータの画面上での表記に誤りがあった「渾然一体」のデータは除外した。

図１は各条件の反応潜時を示したものである。数値に対数変換を施した後、分散分析を行った結果、文字数の要因の主効果が有意であった[F(1, 10)=5.37, p<.05]。また、頻度の要因の主効果も有意であった[F(1, 10)=14.85, p<.01]。交互作用は有意でなかった。このことから、頻度にかかわらず文字数が少ないほど音読までの処理が速く、また、文字数にかかわらず頻度が高いほうが音読までの処理が速いと考えられる。

考察

本研究で用意された高頻度語は心的辞書へのアクセスが容易であり、一方、低頻度語は高頻度語に比べ困難であると仮定できる。したがって、もし、漢字の読みが意味回路によって処理されるならば、心的辞書へのアクセスの容易性が、その後の読みまでの反応潜時に反映される。すなわち、高頻度語は低頻度語よりも速く読まれると予測される。頻度の効果が有意であったことは、この予測を支持するものである。かくして、漢字の読みに意味回路が関与していることに確証を得た。

しかしながら、文字数の効果が有意であったことは、漢字の読みが意味回路のみで処理されることからは説明できない。なぜなら、意味回路で心的辞書にアクセスした後は、当該の単語の意味は抽出されており、後続の音韻処理は実際の読みの表出には関与するが、本課題のような読み方の理解までの潜時には影響しないと考えられるからである。したがって、文字数の効果は意味処理を媒介しない音韻処理によってもたらされたものと考えられる。すなわち、意味回路とは別に音韻回路による音節を集合化していく処理がなされたことを示唆するものである。

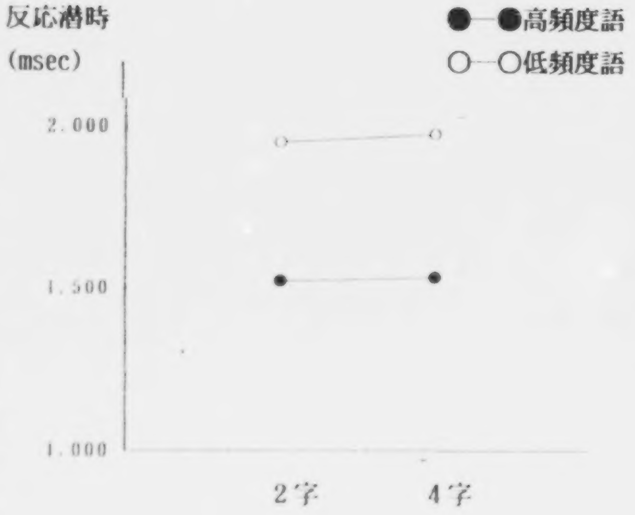

図1　各条件の反応潜時の平均

とはいえ、従来の研究での単語の文字数あるいは音節数による影響はないという結果はどう解釈すべきであろうか。

従来の研究で用いられてきた文字数の条件は、1字と2字であり、音韻回路による処理を経ているとしても、本研究で使用した2字と4字の処理の時間の差に比べわずかなものだったのではないだろうか。ただし、本研究では音節数などの点で統制が不備だったため別の要因が交絡した可能性も否めない。したがって、これ以上の追求は差し控えたい。

ともあれ、本研究の結果は漢字の読みの処理が意味回路のみでなく、音韻回路による関与の可能性を示唆するものと考えられる。

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漢字単語の諸特性と読みの検討（Ⅱ）

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問題

漢字単語の諸特性と読みの検討（Ⅰ）では、漢字単語の諸特性のうち、長さ（文字数）と頻度とを操作し、読み上げ課題での反応潜時を比較した。その結果、長さならびに頻度の有意な効果が認められ、２字単語が４字単語よりも、また、高頻度語が低頻度語よりも速く読み上げられることがわかった。また、漢字単語の読みにおいて、意味回路だけではなく、音韻回路が関与している可能性が示された。

研究Ⅰで検討した２つの特性の他に、漢字単語の読みに関係すると考えられるものの１つに、漢字単語の読み方のタイプがあげられる。日本語の漢字単語には、１文字１文字の音訓の組み合せで全体の読みが決まるもの（例：水牛。以下、これを普通読みと呼ぶ）の他に、単語全体で１つの読みを表わす当て字（例：独逸）、熟字訓（例：独楽）というもの（以下、この２つをあわせて特殊読みと呼ぶ）がある。当て字と熟字訓とは、１つ１つの文字を組み立てて単語となるのではないという点で共通しているが、その成立ちにおいて異なる。当て字は、音韻的なあてはめであるのに対し、熟字訓は、意味的に適当である漢字を用い、それに読み方をあてている。このような３つの読み方のタイプの性質の違いが、その読みに影響を与えるのではないだろうか。

また、１文字の漢字においても、読み方が１つだけのもの（例：峠）と２つ以上あるもの（例：山）とがある。これらの間にも、読みになんらかの差があるのではないかと考えられる。

研究Ⅱにおいては、漢字単語の読み方のタイプを取りあげ、それが、読みにどのように影響するのかを検討することを目的とする。さらに、研究Ⅰで示唆された漢字単語の読みに対する音韻回路の関与、すなわち、漢字における二重回路モデルの妥当性についても考察する。その際、読み上げ課題と共に、より意味的な処理が求められるであろうカテゴリー判断課題も用いることにする。

方法

被験者　大学生３３名。そのうち、１８名が読み上げ課題、残り１５名がカテゴリー判断課題を行った。

課題　読み上げ課題：呈示された材料を読み上げる。
　　カテゴリー判断課題：呈示された材料が生物であるか否かを判断する。

材料　材料は、予備調査の結果をもとに作成した。

予備調査では、大学生１１名を対象に、漢字の読み仮名、主観的頻度、表記モード、生物性について問うた。ここで、主観的頻度とは、その単語を日常どれくらい見かけるかを５段階で評定させたものであり、表記モードは、その単語が普通漢字で書かれるか片仮名で書かれるかについて、生物性は、その単語が生物であるか否かについて、それぞれ判断させたものである。

予備調査の結果、読み仮名の正解率が１００％、高頻度、生物性が１００％か０％、

表記モードで漢字で書かれるのが１００％であることを基準とし、３０語を選出した。ただし、特殊読みに関しては、表記モードにはこだわらず、正解率の高いものを選んだこの３０語に低頻度であることが確認された非語６語を加え、合計３６語を材料としたその内訳は、以下の通りである。

漢字１字・単数読み	６語	（生物３語、非生物３語）
漢字１字・複数読み	６語	（生物３語、非生物３語）
漢字２字・普通読み	６語	（生物３語、非生物３語）
漢字２字・当て字	６語	（生物３語、非生物３語）
漢字２字・熟字訓	６語	（生物３語、非生物３語）
漢字２字・非語	６語	

実験で用いた材料を表１に示す。

表１　実験で用いた刺激語

	生物	非生物
１文字・単数読み	柿　杉　貝	福　才　庁
１文字・複数読み	牛　梅　馬	白　音　寺
２文字・普通読み	白鳥　小鳥　昆虫	水泳　希望　洋服
２文字・当て字	芋虫　麒麟　平目	所詮　布団　硝子
２文字・熟字訓	海老　山羊　百足	火傷　今日　土産
２文字・非語	母茶　服油　金雨　洋辞　悪復　魚日	

手続き　実験は個別に行われた。両課題とも、刺激語はコンピュータ(NEC9801RA）のディスプレイ上に呈示された。読み上げ課題では、単語が画面に呈示されるので、その読み方がわかったらすぐにキーボード上の「Y」キーを押し、それからその単語の読み方を声に出していうように教示した。読み終わってから再び「Y」キーを押すと、次の単語が出てくるようにし、以後、同様に進めた。

カテゴリー判断課題では、単語が画面に呈示されるので、その単語が生物か否かがわかったらすぐにキーボード上の「Y」キーを押し、それから生物ならば「はい」、生物でなければ「いいえ」と声に出して答えるように教示した。答え終わってから再び「Y」キーを押すと、次の単語が出てくるようにし、以後、同様に進めた。

両課題とも、刺激語の呈示から「Y」キーを押すまでの時間（反応潜時）がコンピ

ュータによって1/1000　秒単位で測定された。

両課題とも、１０語の練習試行の後、本試行を行い、本試行の３６語はランダムに呈示した。また、両課題とも被験者の答えはテープレコーダーで録音した。所要時間は、約１０分であった。

なお、課題は被験者間、材料は被験者内要因であった。

結果

本実験では、各条件にそれぞれ６語ずつ割り当てたが、予備調査で頻度などを統制したため、６語とも等しいものとみなし、平均値を算出した。ただし、正答率が低かった「百足」（44.8%）は分析から除外し２文字・熟字訓は、５語の平均をとった。両課題における平均反応潜時を表２に示す。分析には、数値を対数変換したものを用いた。

表２　読み上げ課題とカテゴリー判断課題における各条件の平均反応潜時（msec）と標準偏差

	読み上げ課題	カテゴリー判断課題
１文字・単数読み	1312.69(634.18)	1030.81(453.69)
１文字・複数読み	1189.61(499.48)	980.43(311.62)
２文字・普通読み	1450.77(708.70)	1182.15(572.21)
２文字・当て字	1761.59(690.29)	1217.39(447.52)
２文字・熟字訓	1425.89(609.52)	1022.00(331.41)
２文字・非語	3682.85(3274.57)	1222.70(677.85)

長さの効果　１文字漢字・単数読みと２文字漢字・普通読みとの１要因分散分析を行った。

読み上げ課題）長さの主効果はみられなかった［$F(1,17)=0.87$, n.s.］。

カテゴリー判断課題）長さの主効果がみられた［$F(1,14)=4.78$, $p<.05$］。

１文字漢字における読み方のタイプの比較　１文字漢字の読み方のタイプ（単数読み・複数読み）の１要因分散分析を行った。

読み上げ課題）読み方のタイプの主効果はみられなかった［$F(1,17)=2.45$, n.s.］。

カテゴリー判断課題）読み方のタイプの主効果はみられなかった［$F(1,14)=0.36$, n.s.］。

２文字漢字における読み方のタイプの比較　２文字漢字の読み方のタイプ（普通読み・当

て字・熟字訓）の1要因分散分析を行った。

読み上げ課題）読み方のタイプの主効果が有意であった［F(2,34)=19.47, p<.01］。下位検定を行ったところ、普通読みと当て字との間、当て字と熟字訓との間に、それぞれ、5％水準で有意差があったが、普通読みと熟字訓との間には有意差はなかった。

カテゴリー判断課題）読み方のタイプの主効果が有意であった［F(2,28)=4.82,p<.05］。下位検定を行ったところ、当て字と熟字訓との間に5％水準で有意差があったが、普通読みと当て字、普通読みと熟字訓との間には、有意差がなかった。

単語と非語との比較　2文字・普通読み、2文字・当て字、2文字・熟字訓、2文字・非語の1要因分散分析を行った。

読み上げ課題）語のタイプの主効果が有意であった［F(3,51)=23.79, p<.01］。下位検定を行ったところ、非語と普通読み、当て字、熟字訓との間、普通読みと当て字、当て字と熟字訓との間に、それぞれ有意差があったが、普通読みと熟字訓との間には、有意差がなかった。

カテゴリー判断課題）語のタイプの主効果は有意でなかった［F(3,42)=2.20, n.s.］。

考察

漢字は意味回路を通る　両課題を比較してみると、全体的にカテゴリー判断課題の方が反応潜時が短かった。これは、漢字は意味回路を通ることを示すという従来の説と一致する。漢字を読む時には直接心的辞書に当たり、意味がわかってから音韻が決定されるというこの仮説に従えば、音が必要とされる読み上げ課題が、音が必要とされないカテゴリー判断課題よりも遅くなることが説明できる。同時に、二重回路モデルでも説明が可能である。この場合は、音韻処理の関与が、読み上げ課題と比べて、カテゴリー判断課題で、より少なくてすむため、カテゴリー判断課題の方が反応潜時が短いと考えられる。

漢字の長さは意味的課題に影響する　1文字漢字・単数読みと2文字漢字・普通読みとを比べると、読み上げ課題においては両者の間に差がなかった。研究Ⅰにおいては、読み上げ課題でも長さの効果がみられた。読み上げ課題における研究Ⅰと研究Ⅱとの差は、文字数の差によるものと考えられる。研究Ⅰでは2文字と4文字とであったため、両者の差がより顕著になったのであろう。さらに、一般的に漢字単語は2文字からなるものが多く、4文字単語は2単位として捉えられがちなのに対し、1文字単語と2文字単語は、どちらも1単位のものとして考えられ、この単位数の差が、読み時間に影響したのではないだろうか。一方、カテゴリー判断課題では、1文字の方が速く読まれた。従来いわれてきた、漢字の長さは読みに影響しないという考えと異なるこの結果は、意味だけが求められる課題においても、音韻的な処理が関与していること、つまり二重回路モデルの妥当性を示唆する。また、2つの漢字の組み合せである2文字単語よりも、1文字だけで語となる1文字単語の方が分かりやすいということも考えられる。

1文字漢字においては、読み方のタイプは読みに影響しない　両課題において、単数読みと複数読みとの間に、反応潜時の有意な差はなかった。すなわち、漢字1文字が示されたとき、その漢字に幾つの読み方があるかということは処理に影響を与えないということがいえる。この結果は、読み上げ課題においては、教示もそうであったように、漢字

１文字を見るとき、それを「語」として認識するため、複数の読みがある場合でも、それだけで意味をなすような読み方が自動的に選ばれることによるものであろう。これは、日常的な読みの影響と考えられる。カテゴリー判断課題においては、漢字は意味回路を通るという仮説を支持するものと考えられる。漢字は直接心的辞書に至るのであるから、その音韻的な側面は、音を必要としない課題では関係ないのであろう。しかし、同時に、二重回路を経た結果ともいえる。

２文字漢字においては、読み方のタイプは読みに影響する　当て字、熟字訓の性質と意味回路モデルとからは、両者のうち、読み上げ課題では当て字が、カテゴリー判断課題では熟字訓が、反応潜時が短くなることが予想される。しかし、読み上げ課題においては、当て字は普通読み、熟字訓よりも反応潜時が長く、カテゴリー判断課題においては、当て字は熟字訓より反応潜時が長かった。両課題とも、普通読みと熟字訓とに差はなく、カテゴリー判断課題では、普通読みと当て字との間にも差はなかった。

　読み上げ課題の結果は、漢字の読みは、従来いわれてきたように系列的にではなく、並列的に行われているということを示唆するものと思われる。先に上げた予想は、従来通り、当て字は音韻処理→意味処理、熟字訓は意味処理→音韻処理という前提に基づいている。しかし、結果は、この前提が誤りであることを示す。当て字も熟字訓も、「（読み方を）知っていなければ読めない」という点で同じである。普通読みの結果と併せると、漢字の読みは、意味処理が先に行われ、その後音韻処理が行われるという系列的処理ではなくて、意味処理と音韻処理との双方が、同時に行われるという並列的処理であると考えられる。この２つの処理は、お互いに参照しあい、相互依存的である。その際、どちらの処理に重きがおかれるか、あるいは、時間がかかるかによって、当て字と熟字訓、普通読みとの間の差が生じたのではないか。当て字は、なまじ音を当てはめているだけに、辞書と音韻との間の照合により時間がかかり、漢字そのものの音を無視できる熟字訓よりも時間がかかったのではないだろうか。つまり、２つの処理がお互いに参照され、照合されるときに起こる干渉の程度の多寡が、反応潜時の長短となって現れたものと考えられる。なお、「知っていなければ読めない」というのは、普通読みにも当てはまることであり、例えば、「外科」を「ガイカ」とは読まず「ゲカ」と読めるのはこのためであろう。つまり、その語が心的辞書に記載されているか否かが重要となる。

　カテゴリー判断課題の結果も、以上のことを支持するものである。この課題では、漢字単語の読み方は求められていないのであるから、音韻処理に重きをおかないでよい。その際、普通読み、熟字訓には、単語を構成する漢字そのものに、意味的な手がかりが示されていることが多いのに対し、当て字の方はそうではない。従って、意味を決定するために、普通読み、熟字訓に比べてより多くの音韻処理を行わなければならないのであろう。

　以上のように考えると、最初の「漢字は意味回路を通る」は修正されなければならない。漢字は意味回路と音声回路とを同時に通り、両者が相互に関係しながら読まれるのである。

語彙性は読みに影響する　読み上げ課題では、非語は、普通読み、当て字、熟字訓のどれよりも遅く読まれた。これは、心的辞書にそのような項目が見つからず、同時にまた、音韻処理の方でも適当な音が見あたらないとき、両者の干渉が最も大きくなると考えることにより、説明される。カテゴリー判断課題で差がみられなかったのは、課題の性質

上、比較的音韻処理の役割が軽く、心的辞書に載っていないことがわかった時点で、答を決めたものと考えられる。

まとめ

研究Ⅰ、研究Ⅱを通して、漢字単語の諸特性がその読みにどのような影響を及ぼすのかを検討した。研究Ⅰでは、漢字単語の長さ（文字数）と頻度とを取り上げ、文字数の短い方が、また、高頻度の方が、より速く読まれることが明らかにされた。研究Ⅱでは、おもに漢字単語の読み方のタイプを取り上げ、課題を２つにすることにより、読み方のタイプによって、その読みにかかる時間が異なることを示した。

以上の結果から、漢字単語の読みの過程について以下のように考えられる。

従来、漢字は意味回路を通ると考えられてきた。つまり、まず意味が決定され、その後、音韻が決定されるというものである。これは、処理が系列的に行われるという考え方である。しかし、本研究の結果から示唆されることは、漢字単語の読みにおいても、仮名単語と同様に二重回路を通るということである。漢字単語は、直接心的辞書にアクセスされる（この点は、従来のものと同じである）が、同時に、音韻部門にも直接アクセスされる。つまり、音韻処理と意味処理とは、同時に、並行して行われ、お互いに関与しながら、１つの単語の読みを決定するのである。ただし、その際、読まれる漢字単語によって、両者の間で干渉が起きたり、どちらかの処理が重点的になったり、双方が全く同等に扱われたりし、そのため、反応潜時に差が生じる。

以上のことを示したのが、図１である。

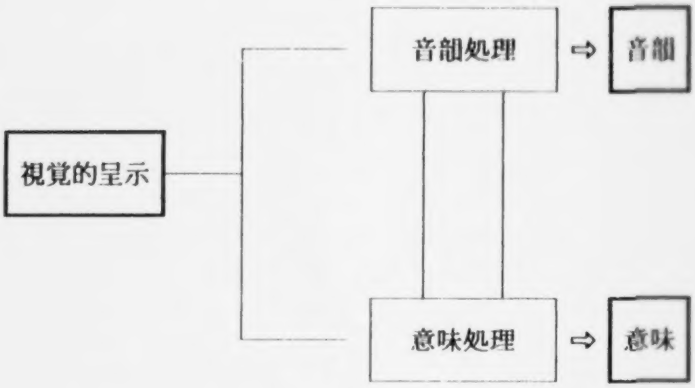

図１　漢字単語の読み過程

本研究で示した「漢字単語の読みは、二重回路を経て行われる」という仮説を検証するために、仮名単語の読みとの比較や、ここでは考慮されなかった他の要因の検討など、さらに研究を進めていくことが望まれる。

幼児と童話・昔話とのかかわりⅡ

－絵本を用いて調べたお話の熟知度－

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Ｉはじめに

私たちは、桐花教育研究所に併設されている幼稚園やナーサリースクールにおいて、日常的に子供たちに対する絵本の読み聞かせを行っており、その体験から感じた疑問をもとに、これまでに幼児と童話・昔話のかかわりについて、いくつかの視点から検討を行ってきた。

まず田中ら(1990)は、年少児85名、年中児161 名、年長児149 名の計395 名の保護者を対象にして、「親がどのような絵本を良い絵本と考え、それをどのように選んでいるか」について、その実態を明らかにすることを目的にした調査を行った。その結果の中で、『実際に子供はどのような絵本を読んでいるか』について、「童話・民話・昔話」が他のジャンルの絵本（生活絵本、知育絵本、キャラクター絵本、動物や花などの自然絵本）よりもかなり多いことが確認された。さらに、母親が『読ませたい絵本は何か』についてもやはり第１位が「童話等」であった。

また横山ら(1991)は、①家庭において童話・昔話の絵本やビデオをどの程度所有しているか（お話の種類と数）、②母親が童話・昔話をどの程度子供に話しているか（お話の種類）、③子供が最初に興味を持った童話・昔話は何か、それは何歳のころか、④ももたろう、浦島太郎、うさぎと亀、したきりすずめの話をどの程度理解しているか、などの点について、22の有名な童話・昔話に関して、２歳～６歳までの子供 195名（２歳児82名、３歳児50名、４歳児28名、５歳児35名）とその母親を対象に調査を行った。その結果、その研究でとり上げた22の童話・昔話の多くが本・紙芝居として所有されていること、２歳児の家庭の所有率は予想以上に高く、22のお話のうち11のお話について２歳の時点で５０％以上の家庭が所有していること、年長になるにしたがって本・紙芝居の所有率は上昇する傾向にあるがビデオの所有率に関してはその傾向はあまり強くないこと、どのお話もよく家庭で話されており、ももたろう・うさぎと亀・浦島太郎は２歳の頃から半数以上の家庭で話されているが、おむすびころりん・かぐや姫は３歳になって、花さかじいさん・ヘンゼルとグレーテルは４歳になって、さるかに合戦・ながぐつをはいた猫は５歳になって多く話されるようになること、子供が最初に童話・昔話に興味を持った年齢は平均２歳１か月、標準偏差9.4 か月、範囲０歳４か月～５歳０か月であること、子供が最初に興味を示したお話は、ももたろう、３匹のこぶた、赤ずきん、うさぎと亀、シンデレラ、白雪姫などであり、４人にひとりが「ももたろう」であったことなどが確認された。

さらに横山ら(1993)は、幼稚園・保育所等の保育者と童話・昔話のかかわりの実態を明らかにするために、母親を対象にしておこなわれた横山ら(1991)の研究で用いた22の童話・昔話について、①職場に、童話・昔話の絵本やビデオをどのくらい所有しているか（お

話の種類と数）、②保育者が童話・昔話をどの程度子供に話しているか（お話の種類）、③保育者がお話をどの程度知っているか、④保育者が子供に読み聞かせたいお話は何かなどについて、327名の保育者を対象にした調査を行った。その結果、調査の対象とした22の童話・昔話の多くについて、幼稚園・保育所の所有率は家庭における所有率とほぼ一致すること、ビデオについても家庭におけるビデオの所有率とほぼ等しいこと、お話・読み聞かせの経験では、22のほとんどのお話について話したり、読み聞かせた経験があること、読み聞かせの経験の多いお話と少ないお話の傾向は母親と保育者とでほぼ一致しているが、母親の90%（１位）が話した経験のある「ももたろう」は保育者では62%（３位）とそれほど数値が大きいわけではなく、77%（２位）の母親が話した「うさぎと亀」は保育者では44%（11位）しか話されていないことなどが確認できた。

今回は、実際に絵本を用いて、幼児がビジュアルな情報からお話をどの程度特定できるか、またその手がかりは何かについて資料を得るために、年少児から年長児を対象にして実施した研究の結果を報告する。

Ⅱ方法

1)調査対象児

調査対象は茨城県土浦市にある神立中央幼稚園の園児 110名と桐花教育研究所みどり会幼稚園の園児30名であった。内訳は、年少児47名、年中児33名、年長児60名であった。

2)調査に用いた絵本

横山ら(1991)、横山ら(1993)の調査に用いられた22の童話・昔話のうち、母親および保育者による読み聞かせやお話がなされる年齢が２歳から５歳と広範囲にわたることに配慮して本研究に用いる絵本を選択した。実際には、ももたろう、かぐや姫、シンデレラ、赤ずきん、白雪姫、浦島太郎、さるかに合戦、花咲かじいさんの８つの童話・昔話を取り上げた。絵本は、永岡書店刊、名作アニメ絵本シリーズ、アニメ昔話シリーズを用いた。

それぞれの絵本から、その物語を特徴づけていると思われるシーンを２場面選択し、その絵本から切り取り、２場面を１枚の台紙に張りつけた。

選択した場面を以下に示す。

ももたろう－桃が割れて桃太郎が生まれる場面。桃太郎と犬、さる、きじが鬼をやっつけた場面。

かぐや姫　－竹からかぐや姫が生まれる場面。かぐや姫が月に帰っていく場面。

シンデレラ－かぼちゃの馬車に乗って宮殿に向かう場面。ガラスの靴を王子様から渡される場面。

赤ずきん　－赤ずきんちゃんがおおかみにどこに行くのか尋ねられている場面。赤ずきんちゃんがおばあさんのお見舞いに行くとベッドにおおかみが寝ている場面。

白雪姫　　－白雪姫が魔法使いに毒リンゴを渡されている場面。白雪姫が生き返り王子

様と７人の小人が喜んでいる場面。

浦島太郎　－浦島太郎が亀にのって龍宮城へ向かう場面。玉手箱から白い煙が出て浦島太郎がおじいさんになる場面。

さるかに合戦－さるがかにに柿を投げつけている場面。さるがうす、栗、蜂にやっつけられている場面。

花咲かじいさん－おじいさんが犬のほえるところを掘り小判がたくさん出てきた場面。おじいさんが灰をまいて枯れ木に花を咲かせた場面。

3)調査手続き

本調査は個別面接法によって行われた。上に挙げたお話の順に、ひとつずつ、調査者が子供に対して台紙に張りつけた絵本の２場面を見せ、「このお話は何と言うお話か知っていますか」と尋ねた。さらに、知っていた子供（その解答が誤答であっても）に対しては、「どの絵でそれがわかりましたか、指でさして下さい」と尋ね、お話を識別する手がかりについて調べた。手がかりの数は制限をもうけず、いくつでも指摘させたが複数の手がかりを指摘した場合には最初のふたつのみを記録した。また調査の際の子供の反応（例えば「ビデオで見たことがある」「お母さんが読んでくれた」など）をすべて記録した。

調査者は幼稚園の教諭５名および筑波大学の大学院生１名、学類学生２名であった。

調査時間は１名につき最大10分程度であったが、そのお話を知らなかった場合には、調査終了後に、子供が興味を持てば、調査者があらすじを話したり、絵本の読み聞かせを行った。

Ⅲ結果

８つのお話ごとに、正答率を年齢別に比較した結果を図１に示す。この図では年長児の正答率が高い順にお話を並べてある。なお、正答には一般的にその童話・昔話を特定していると思われるタイトルをすべて含めた（例えば「花咲かじいさん」は「花咲かじじい、ここほれワンワン」でも正答としている）。また表１にお話識別の手がかりをまとめた。

以下にこの図表から導き出される結果をまとめる。

①すべてのお話について、年齢が大きくなるにしたがって、正答率が上昇している。

②今回のお話の中で各年齢において最も高い正答率を示したのは「ももたろう」であり、年少児においても64%の子供が正答している（年中児70%、年長児95%）。これは小さい頃から母親や保育者による「ももたろう」の読み聞かせが行われていること、また、「ももたろう」の絵本やビデオの家庭における所有率が極めて高く、高い頻度で接していることが予想されることなどが理由であろう。続いて、「赤ずきん」「白雪姫」「浦島太郎」の順であった。この順序は各年齢でほぼ共通している。

③「さるかに合戦」「シンデレラ」「花咲かじいさん」「かぐや姫」は年長児においても正答率が50%以下と低く、年中児ではどのお話も10%～20%台前半の正答率であった。

④「シンデレラ」を「白雪姫」と誤答した例が全体で７例あった（年少児２例、年中児３例、年長児２例）。これは提示順序において「シンデレラ」が「白雪姫」の前であった

ことが関係していると思われる。また他の混同の例として、「かぐや姫」➡「シンデレラ」３例（年少児１例、年中児２例）、「浦島太郎」➡「ももたろう」６例（各年齢２例ずつ）、「花咲かじいさん」➡「こぶとりじいさん」１例（年中児）があった。

⑤「かぐや姫」は年少児０％、年中児は12％、年長児37％と予想以上に正答率が低かった。先行研究（横山ら,1991;横山ら,1993)の結果によると、「かぐや姫」では母親や保育者の読み聞かせが３歳の頃から増加しており、また絵本やビデオの所有率も決して低くはないため、子供にとってはファミリアリティの高い昔話と思われた。しかしお話のストーリーが幼児には難しく、またお話の中に『仏様の鉢』『つばめの子安貝』などのような幼児には非日常的なものが出てくることから、お話そのものの理解が深まっていないことが推察される。

⑥表１のお話を識別するための手がかりについてのまとめをみると、正答率の高かった「ももたろう」と「赤ずきん」では、各年齢において手がかりがほぼ共通していることがわかる。「白雪姫」では、年少児にはみられなかった『小人』が年中児と年長児には出てきている。「浦島太郎」では、やはり年少児にはみられなかった『玉手箱』が年中児と年長児には手がかりとなっている。同様に、「さるかに合戦」では『臼』が、「花咲かじいさん」では『桜』と『小判』が、年中児以上において識別の手がかりとなっている。

Ⅳ今後の課題

今回は、年少児から年長児までを対象にして行った８つの童話・昔話の識別の実態について概略的な結果を報告するにとどまった。いくつかの結果が得られたが、その中で、やはり「ももたろう」は子供たちにとって最もファミリアリティのあるお話であることが再確認できた。そこで今後の研究課題として、①「ももたろう」はなぜ子供たちに魅力的であるのか、②今の子供たちは「ももたろう」によって何を学んでいるのか、③成長するとともに「ももたろう」をどう語るかなどを挙げ、検討していきたいと考えている。

また現在、「ももたろう」の聞き取り調査を継続している。具体的には、２歳時、３歳時、４歳時と約１年おきに「ももたろう」の話を同じ子供に話してもらい、それをテープレコーダに録音する聴取調査を行っている。約20名のデータを収集しているが、今後データ数を増やして以下の視点から分析する予定である。

＊総語数、語彙数、発話時間などの量的な面および登場人物や話の筋などの正確さを指標とする質的な面の分析を縦断的に行う。それらの結果が年齢や童話・昔話に関する質問紙調査の結果とどのような関係にあるかを検討する。

＊「ももたろう」を絵本や母親の話で聞くことを中心にした子供と主にビデオを通じてヴィジュアルに理解している子供の比較を行う。

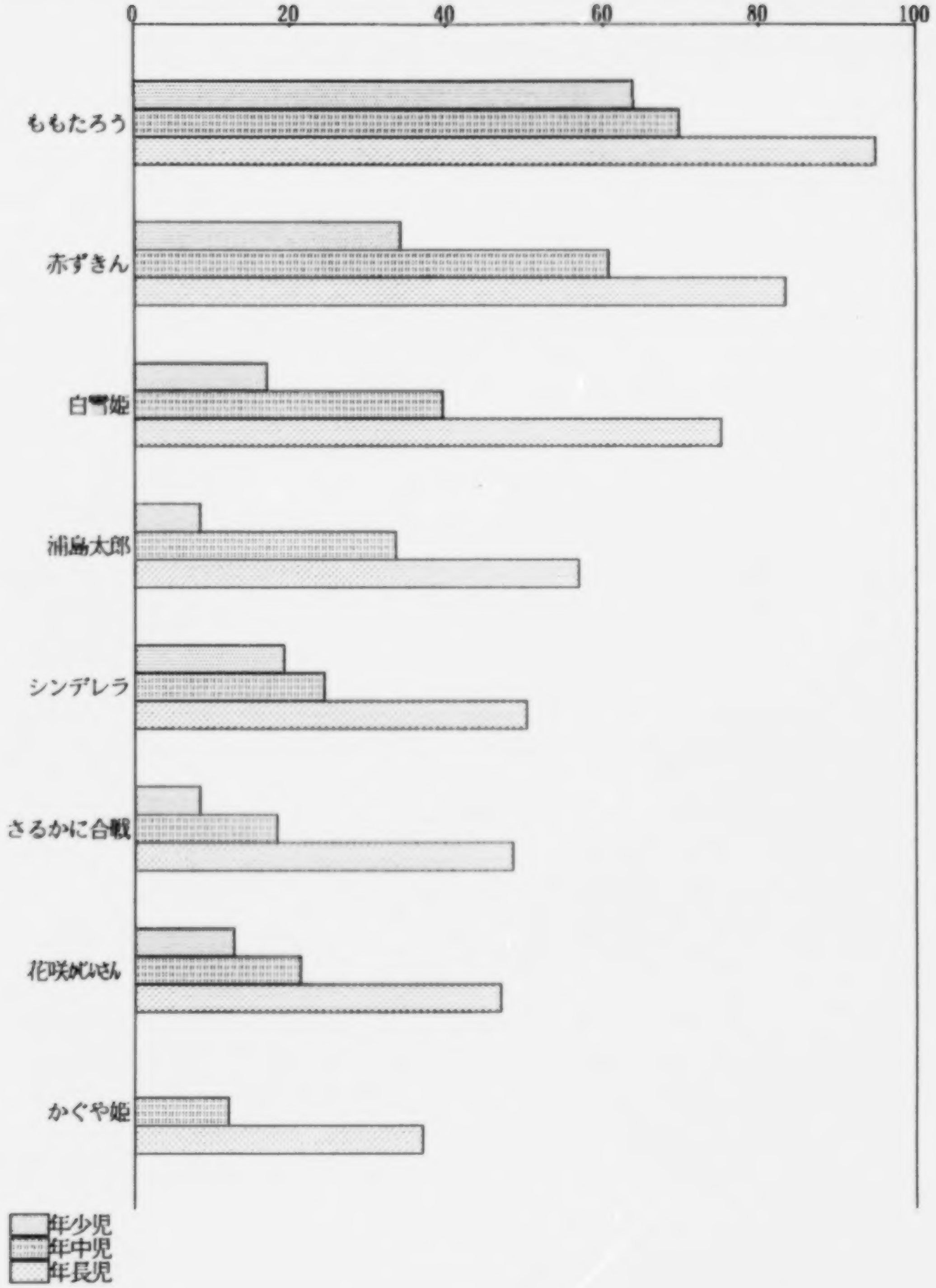

図１．年齢別、お話別正答率（％）

表１．お話の識別の手がかり

お話　／　年齢	年少児（47名）	年中児（33名）	年長児（60名）
ももたろう	桃太郎(23%)　桃(17%) 鬼(17%) 犬・猿・雉（各6%）	桃太郎(29%)　桃(29%) 鬼(7%) 犬・猿・雉（各4%）	桃(47%)　桃太郎(32%) 鬼(30%)　はちまき(6%) 猿(4%)犬・雉（各2%）
赤ずきん	ﾍﾞｯﾄﾞ で寝ている狼(34%) 赤ずきんちゃん(9%)	ﾍﾞｯﾄﾞ で寝ている狼(36%) 赤ずきんちゃん(6%)	ﾍﾞｯﾄﾞ で寝ている狼(33%) 赤ずきんちゃん(27%)
白雪姫	魔女(6%)　りんご(4%) 王子(2%)	小人(18%)　りんご(12%) 魔女(9%)　姫(9%) 王子(3%)	小人(13%)　りんご(10%) 姫(10%)　魔女(8%) 王子(7%)
浦島太郎	亀(11%)　おじいさん(4%)	亀(18%)　玉手箱(9%) おじいさん(6%)	亀(25%)　おじいさん(8%) 玉手箱(7%)
さるかに合戦	かに(4%)　柿(2%)	柿(15%)　臼・かに・栗・猿（各6%）	猿(22%)　臼(17%)　柿(8%) かに(8%)
シンデレラ	ｼﾝﾃﾞﾚﾗ(9%)　靴(2%) 馬車(2%)	ｼﾝﾃﾞﾚﾗ(12%)　靴(9%) 馬車(6%)	馬車(18%)　靴(10%) ｼﾝﾃﾞﾚﾗ(7%)
花咲かじいさん	犬(6%)　おじいさん(4%)	桜(12%)　おじいさん(6%) 小判・犬（各3%）	桜(10%)　犬(8%) おじいさん(5%)　小判(3%)
かぐや姫		竹から生まれた かぐや 姫(9%) 月(6%)	竹から生まれた かぐや 姫(22%) 月(3%)

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佐々梨代子ほか（1990）　子どもに語るグリムの童話　こぐま社

田中善之・横山知弘・徳田克己（1990）　幼児教室に通う幼児と絵本とのかかわり－幼児教室、保育園、幼稚園の子どもの母親に対する調査を通して－，日本読書学会第３４回大会発表資料集，60-65.

横山範子・横山さつき・横山知弘（1991）　幼児と童話・昔話とのかかわり－かかわりの実態ともも太郎、浦島太郎などのお話の理解－，桐花教育研究所紀要，4,3-8.

横山知弘・横山範子・横山さつき・徳田克己（1993）　保育者と童話・昔話のかかわり，日本保育学会第46回大会研究論文集，710-711.

絵本の中のマイノリティ

－低年齢の子供に対する福祉教育における教材として－

筑波大学　徳田克己

Ⅰ　はじめに

子供の成長に果たす絵本の役割が極めて大きいことは疑う余地のないことであり、これまで絵本に関する数多くの実践的、理論的研究が多岐にわたる分野で行われてきた。幼児教育や家庭教育において、絵本は子供の発達を保障するために欠かすことのできない存在であり、良い絵本の紹介や選び方について多くの書物、雑誌が出版されている（例えば、日本子供の本研究会絵本研究部,1989;清水,1984,1985 ；全国学校図書館協議会,1993 ）。

わが国で出版される絵本は、高度な印刷技術や製本技術を背景としているために完成度が高く、世界的にも注目されている。しかし、「日本の絵本はイラストが上手でとてもレベルが高いが、内容面では、障害者や離婚家庭などの社会的問題が絵本の世界からシャットアウトされていることを強く感じる」という在日外国人の感想もある（ジュリア・カセム,1991 ）。確かに、アメリカ合衆国において出版されている絵本には、障害者、少数民族、難病やエイズなどの病気の人、高齢者などの社会的マイノリティが、主人公として、また背景として（ストーリーとは関係のない通行人としてなど）登場することが多い。この傾向は絵本だけではなく、一般の書物やテレビドラマ・映画などにも共通していると言われている。国際障害者年日本推進協議会(1983)は、マスコミュニケーションにおいて「障害者を、家庭や職場、学校あるいは余暇を楽しむ場といったあらゆる場面で描くこと、障害者を主題とする作品だけでなく、マスメディアの作品の中に出てくる一員として、障害者を仲間に入れること」などを提言している。日本では最近になって、障害児や高齢者が主人公として取り上げられるようになったのが現状である。

筆者はこれまでに、障害児・者やエイズ感染者に関する理解教育についての一連の研究を行ってきた（徳田,1988,1990,1991,1992,1993)。その中で、正しい理解と認識の形成のためには、幼児期からの取り組みが不可欠であることを確認している。

方法論的にも、オーソリティの講義を聞く方法、障害児・者と直接接触する方法、映像を用いる方法、施設や学校の見学を行う方法、ボランティア活動に参加する方法、障害のシミュレーション体験法、読書による方法などのいくつかの方法を開発し、その態度変容効果を確認している。

本発表では、教育現場の指導者、保育者、母親が日常的に行っている方法である絵本の読み聞かせを用いて、社会的マイノリティに関する理解を促進するための福祉教育の方法論を検討してみたいと考えた。

具体的には、以下のことについて検討を行った。

①日本児童図書出版協会の会員社を中心として、絵本を出版している出版社に対して、社会的マイノリティを題材にした、あるいはそれらが登場する絵本の実態調査を行う。
②出版社から紹介のあった絵本を入手し、登場者や内容などについて、整理・要約する。
③今回取り上げる絵本の福祉教育の教材としての有効性を検討する。

Ⅱ　方法

(1) 調査対象

絵本を出版している出版社２９社に対して、社会的マイノリティが登場する絵本に関する調査を実施した。そのうち回答があったのは、あかね書房、秋書房、あすなろ書房、アリス館、岩崎書店、旺文社、偕成社、学習研究社、佼成出版社、講談社、集英社、主婦と生活社、小学館、大日本絵画、童心社、農山漁村文化協会、ひさかたチャイルド、福音館書店、ＰＨＰ研究所、冨山房、文化出版局、文研出版、平凡社、ほるぷ出版、ポプラ社、佑学社、リブリオ出版の２７社であった。したがって回

収率は93.1%となる。

(2) 調査内容と手続き

調査対象社に、以下の文書を送付し、調査を依頼した。

『私は「障害を持った人や高齢者、難治性の病気の人などの、社会の中のマイノリティの方々についての社会的啓蒙と福祉教育」に関して研究をしている者です。障害者や高齢者の理解促進のためには、子供の頃からの教育が必要であると考え、福祉教育のための教材の整備をおこなっていかなくてはならないと感じています。そこで今回、福祉教育の教材として用いることができる「絵本」を調査し、いくつかの視点で分類・整理したリストを作成したいと考えております。

貴社においてご出版なさっている絵本の中で、障害児や障害者、高齢者、病気や怪我の人、外国人、貧困者などの日本社会におけるマイノリティの人が登場するものがございましたら、ぜひご紹介戴きたく思っております。ご紹介下さった絵本は、早速購入させて戴くつもりです。またリストが完成しましたら、ぜひご意見を賜りたく思います。』

調査対象社から回答のあった絵本のリストにしたがって、それらすべてを発注したが、絶版、品切れ、増刷未定などのものが十数点あり、それらを除いた７０点が入手できた。

(3) 調査期間

本調査は、1992年１月〜1993年２月にかけて実施された。

Ⅲ　結果

入手した７０点の絵本のうち、幼児から小学校低学年の子供のための、社会的マイノリティの理解に役立つ教材として活用できる可能性のあるものを選択するために、筆者と筑波大学の学生３名（心身障害学専攻２名、児童文学専攻１名）の計４名がそれらの絵本を読み、おのおの福祉教育の教材として適切であると評価した本を挙げた。その結果、７０点のうち５１点がどの評価者にも共通して適切であると評価された。

その５１点の絵本を登場人物の特徴によって分類した結果、「障害を持つ人や動物が登場する絵本」２６点、「高齢者や年をとった動物が登場する絵本」１３点、「病気・怪我の人や動物が登場する絵本」６点、「まわりと異なる特徴を持っている動物が登場する絵本」６点となった。以下に、それらの本の簡単な内容を示す。

＊障害を持つ人や動物が登場する絵本

このジャンルの絵本では、主人公自身や主人公と直接かかわる登場者が障害を持っている内容であるか、あるいは障害を持っている子供の日常生活や学校生活の解説つき写真絵本が中心である。

障害種別では、知的障害１１点、肢体不自由７点、視覚障害７点、聴覚障害１点であった。中学生以上の一般人を対象にした福祉教育の観点からすると、visible な障害である肢体不自由者（車いすを含む）や盲導犬・白杖を持つ視覚障害者は絵本の題材として取りあげられやすいが、一般の人の共通認識に乏しいと考えられる知的障害については教材の内容の選択や方法論の点で本格的な福祉教育的取り組みが困難なことが多い。今回の調査結果をみると、作者は限られているとは言え、知的障害に関する絵本が最も多く、積極的な活用が期待できる。

また以下のリストの最初に挙げた、上肢障害児が主人公である『さっちゃんのまほうのて』は、約２０万部が世に出ている実績のある絵本であり、新聞や雑誌等で紹介される機会も多い。実際にこの本を用いての障害理解教育が、障害児を受け入れて統合保育や統合教育をしている幼稚園、保育所、小学校において行われている。障害者に対する肯定的な態度の形成や好意的な態度変容を促進するためには、そのメッセージの与え手は受け手と同じ社会的境遇にいることが重要であることが確認されているが（Altman,1981;徳田,1988)、その点についても『さっちゃんのまほうのて』をはじめとする今回リストアップした絵本の多くは、主人公が幼稚園児などの読み手と同じステイタスを持つ子供であり、福祉教育の教材として効果的であると考えられる。

『さっちゃんのまほうのて』制作　田畑精一・野辺明子・志沢小夜子
先天性四肢障害児父母の会／偕成社
先天的に右の手の指が欠損しているさっちゃんが幼稚園で友達にからかわれ、幼稚園に行くのが嫌になるが、母親や父親のかかわりによって、自分なりに右手のことを受け入れるようになって行く話。

『誰も知らない』作　灰谷健次郎・絵　長谷川集平／あかね書房
まりこという脳性マヒの子供が町の中を歩きながら地域の人達とふれ合っていく話。

『ベトちゃんとドクちゃんからのてがみ』文　松谷みよ子・画　井口文秀／童心社
ベトとドクというベトナムの結合体児の分離手術までの話。戦争の悲惨さも表現。

『わたしたちのトビアス』編　セシリア＝スベドベリ　作　トビアスの兄姉　ヨルゲン　カロリーナ　ウルリーカ　ヨハンナ　訳　山内清子　／偕成社

『わたしたちのトビアス　大きくなる』編　ボー・スベドベリ作　トビアスの兄姉　訳　ビヤネール多美子／偕成社
トビアスという障害児が生まれた家族の話。普通の人も、普通でない人も一緒にいるのが当たり前であり、それによってお互いを良く知ることができるという内容。

『ボスがきた』文　馬島克美　絵　竹内雅輝　編　福井達雨　／偕成社
犬のボスと知恵遅れのいちろうの話。ボスが死に、いちろうは死について考える。

『みんなみんなぼくのともだち』文　福井義人・編　福井達雨　／偕成社
知恵遅れの施設で先生をしている両親を持ち、知恵遅れの子供達と一緒に育ってきた義人（健常児）の話。

『うさぎぐみとこぐまぐみ』　かこさとし心の本／ポプラ社
保育園で統合保育を受けるショウタというダウン症児の話。

『ほおずきならそ』作　大塚伸行／童心社
何を話しかけても笑うだけのヨーサクと村の子供たちのふれあい。村人からヨーサクが賽銭泥棒のぬれぎぬをきせられ、ヨーサクはいなくなってしまう。

『雨のにおい星の声』文　赤座　憲久・絵　鈴木義治／小峰書店
盲目の子供たちがまわりの世界を感じ取ろうとする内容。詩的。

『こわいことなんかあらへん』編　福井達雨　・絵　馬嶋克美　／偕成社
統合教育を受けている、やよいという知恵遅れの子供が「こわい」「きたない」といじめられるがある子供がそれをかばう話。

『はしれムンシー！』編　福井達雨　／偕成社
飼い主からじゃま物扱いされた子犬のムンシーが、知恵遅れの施設で子供たちと一緒に暮らしていく話。

『５にんのぼく　５にんめのぼく』かこさとしの　からだとこころのえほん１０／農文協
これから車いす生活を送らなければならない幼稚園児の「ぼく」は、自分が５人いたら「ぼく」を手術してくれた先生のような偉い学者、サッカー選手、探険家、野球選手、優しい看護婦さんをお嫁にもらうだんなさんになりたいという話。

『あつおのぼうけん』作　田島征彦　吉村敬子　／童心社
養護学校の四年生のあつおの冒険の話。仲良くなった友達（健常児）を助ける内容。

『おんぶ』作・絵　はらみちを　／岩崎書店
イタチのタッチと歩くことができない友達のケンの話。タッチもケンのように、いつもお母さんにおんぶされたいが、ケンが歩けないことを知り、自分が恥ずかしくなる。

『およげなかったかも』文　福井達雨・絵　止揚学園の子どもたち　／偕成社
知恵遅れの施設である止揚学園の、鴨が好きなのぶひこという男の子の話。

『もうどうけん　ドリーナ』監修　日紫喜均三　作　土田ヒロミ　／福音館書店
盲導犬ドリーナが産まれて、訓練によって視覚障害者のために働くようになるまでを写真によってつづった写真絵本。カラー版。

『クイールはもうどう犬になった』文　こわせたまみ　写真　秋元良平　／ひさかたチャイルド
盲導犬クイールが産まれて、訓練によって視覚障害者のために働くようになるまでを写真によってつづった写真絵本。白黒版。

『掌の中の宇宙－視覚障害児の学校生活から学ぶ－』編　西村陽平・成子良子　写真　西村陽平　／偕成社
視覚障害児の学校生活の１コマを写真によってつづった写真集。子供たちの生き生きした様子が印象的である。白黒版。

『見たことないもの作ろう！－視覚障害児の作品から学ぶ』編　西村陽平　／偕成社
視覚障害児が粘土を用いて作成した作品の写真集。子供が真剣な表情をして作成する様子がよくわかる。白黒版。

『友だちたくさんできるかな？－全盲児かずくんのねがい－』編・写真　ピヤネール多美子／偕成社
全盲児かずくんの幼稚園から８年間の統合保育、交流教育の記録写真集。白黒版。

『指で見る』文・写真　トーマス・ベリイマン訳　ピヤネール多美子　／偕成社
盲学校の子供たちの学校生活をつづった写真集。盲人用時計などの視覚障害を補償する器具の紹介もある。白黒版。

『わたし、耳がきこえないの』文・写真　トーマス・ベリイマン　訳　石井登志子　／偕成社
生まれつき聴覚障害を持つ６歳の少女カロリーナの学校生活、日常生活をつづった写真集。白黒版。

『なぜ、目をつぶるの？－このすばらしい愛と協力のきずな－』文・写真　トーマス・ベリイマン　訳　ピヤネール多美子　／偕成社
ストックホルムの障害児の訓練のための、リハビリテーションセンターでの子供たちの機能訓練の様子をつづった写真集。白黒版。

『だれが　わたしたちをわかってくれるの』文・写真　トーマス・ベリイマン訳　ピヤネール多美子　／偕成社
障害を持つふたりの幼い姉妹の日常生活をつづった写真集。子供たちの明るい表情が印象的。白黒版。

『車いすのマティアス』文・写真　トーマス・ベリイマン　訳　ピヤネール多美子　／偕成社
脳性マヒ児であり、聴覚障害をあわせ持つマティアスの日常生活をつづった写真集。白黒版。

＊高齢者や年をとった動物が登場する絵本

このジャンルの絵本は、高齢者に対する思いやりを求めるものと老人性痴呆に関する理解を求めるものに大別できる。どちらも、来たるべき高齢化社会に備えて意識しておかなくてはならない内容である。登場人物によって分類すると、おばあさんが８点、おじいさんが５点であった。

『おばあちゃん』作　大森真貴乃／ほるぷ出版
働き者でしっかり者のおばあちゃんが怪我をきっかけに、痴呆となる話。家族の視点。

『ハーヨとおじいさん』作　与田準一・画　西巻　茅子／童心社
子供と高齢者のかかわり。話の中でおじいさんが倒れてしまう場面がある。

『おばあちゃんをすてちゃいやだ　パキスタンのむかしばなしより』文　福井達雨　　絵　馬嶋純子　／偕成社
パキスタンの砂漠の小さな村の姥捨ての風習の話。役に立たない老人は遠くの砂漠に捨てるという父親に反発して、みんなで仲良く暮らすことが一番であることを訴えた孫。

『星のかけらの首かざり』作　木暮正夫・絵　遠藤てるよ　／岩崎書店
夏休みにおばあちゃんのところに遊びに行ったミホとフキおばあちゃんの話。

『おばあちゃんのありがとう』作　ふりやかよこ　／文研出版
大きな家の前にいつも黒い猫と一緒に立って外国の息子さんからの手紙を待っている、独り暮らしのおばあさんと近所のみなちゃんの話。

『ばあちゃんのなつやすみ』作・絵　梅田俊作，佳子　／岩崎書店
東京から娘と孫がやってきて、おじいちゃん、おばあちゃんと楽しい時間を過ごす話。

『ねんねしたおばあちゃん』かこさとし心の本　／ポプラ社
タミエがやさしいおばあちゃんに育てられていく話。突然おばあちゃんが倒れ、不帰の人となり、おばあちゃんのお葬式を出す。

『ばあちゃんのえんがわ』作・絵　野村たかあき　／講談社
ばあちゃんの縁側で、家族や近所の人、動物がふれ合っている話。

『おじいちゃんのまち』作・絵　野村たかあき　／講談社
おばあちゃんが亡くなってからもう一年も独り暮らしをしているおじいちゃんに、一緒に暮らそうと誘う話。近所の人がおじいちゃんにいろいろと声をかけ、それを見た自分は「おじいちゃんはこの街では独りぼっちじゃないんだ」ということがわかった。

『がんばれゴロウ！』作　福田岩緒　／文研出版
おじいさん犬のゴロウと「ぼく」の話。年老いた者に対する思いやり。

『おばあちゃんの病気』作　森たかこ・絵　高田勲　／岩崎書店
脳溢血で倒れ、半身不随になったおばあちゃんを看護する家族の話。現実的な対応がリアルに表現されている。

『花びら時計』作　やまなみけい・絵　こもりかおる　／岩崎書店
小さな時計屋のおじいさんを、ねずみの親子、猫、うみがめ、ふくろう、花の妖精が順番に元気づける話。

『うん、なんとかしなくっちゃ！』作・絵　ふりやかよこ　／岩崎書店
突然おばあさんが亡くなったおじいさんを元気づけようとがんばる猫のピンタの話。

*病気・怪我の人や動物が登場する絵本

このジャンルの絵本は、病気や怪我の人に対する思いやりや筋ジストロフィー、白血病などの特定の病気に対する理解を求める内容である。

『びょうきじまん　やまいくらべ』かこさとしのからだとこころのえほん２　／農文協
六人の病気の子供が老人ホームに花を届けに行く話。ひとりの子供は進行性筋ジストロフィー。世の中には病気にかかっても、他人の事を考えたり、生きている間を大切に過ごそうと考えている人がいるという内容。

『おっぱいさよならね』作　中島信子・絵　長谷川知子／童心社
とむとけんの仲良しな兄弟の母親が乳ガンになる話。

『ねこかもね』作　なかえよしを・絵　上野紀子　／文研出版
のら猫と怪我をした鴨の話。猫に助けられた鴨がお礼をする。

『チャーリー・ブラウン　なぜなんだい？　ーともだちがおもい病気になったときー』
作　チャールズ・M・シュルツ　訳　細谷亮太　／岩崎書店
チャーリー・ブラウンの友達のジャニスという女の子が白血病で入院した。頭にすてきなピンクの帽子をかぶってジャニスが学校に戻ってきたが、いじめっ子がその帽子を取り上げると、彼女の頭の髪は一本もなかった。

『ふゆのくまさん』文　ルース・クラフト・絵　エリッフ・ブレッグバッド
訳　山田修治　／アリス館
枯れ木の上のほうに引っかかっていた毛糸のくまの縫いぐるみを助けて、洋服を着せてクッションに座らせてあげた兄弟の話。

『がんとたたかう子どもたち』文・写真　トーマス・ベリイマン　訳　ビヤネール多美子　／偕成社
血液のがんである白血病に侵されたふたりの子どもと両親の生活をつづった写真集。白黒版。

*まわりと異なる特徴を持っている動物が登場する絵本

このジャンルの絵本には、まわりと異なる特徴を持つためにいじめの対象になる動物が、努力によって、周囲に認められるといった内容が多く、それが寓話的に表現されている。「白い象」「継ぎはぎ色の象」「黄色のクジラ」「白いラクダ」は、現実には、白子症、アザのある人、外国人などの外見的特徴を持つ人にあたる。

童話の「みにくいあひるの子」も同様であるが、この種のストーリーでは、まわりと異なる特徴を持っている存在がいじめの対象となっており、それを乗り越えるためには潜在的な能力や特性（みにくいあひるの子が本当は白鳥であること、白い象が優しい心を持っているということ、黄色いクジラがたいへんな努力をすること）が必要であることを示唆している。この点に関しては、社会的マイノリティを「常に一生懸命努力し続けなくてはならない存在」ととらえているステレオタイプ的な考え方の影響があると言える。教材として利用する際にはこの点に十分に注意しなければならない。

『ぞうのむらのそんちょうさん』　かこさとし　七色のおはなしえほん／偕成社
象の村の中のたった一頭の白い象の話。小さい頃はいじめられていたが、優しい心を持っていたので、大きくなって村長になった。

『かわいいきいろのクジラちゃん』　かこさとし心の本／ポプラ社
一頭だけ体の色が黄色のクジラの話。いじめられるが、がんばって生きていく内容。

『じろりじろり』文　ディビッド・マッキー・絵　原昌　／アリス館
黒い象と白い象が戦争したが、それらの子孫の象は灰色で、その後、みんな仲良く暮らしたという話。

『ぞうのエルマー』文・絵　デイビッド・マッキー・訳　安西徹雄／アリス館
『またまたぞうのエルマー』文・絵　デイビッド・マッキー・訳　安西徹雄／アリス館
ジャングルの象の群れの中に、他の象のような色ではなく、いろいろな色の継ぎはぎだらけの子象エルマーがいた。そのことを悩んだエルマーが身体の色を染めるが、雨で色が流され、他の象に笑われる話。『またまた‥‥』は、その続編。

『しろいらくだ』作・文・絵　佐川美代太郎　／文研出版
昔中央アジアの商人のキャラバンの中にいたユルングという歳をとった白いらくだの話。

Ⅳ　まとめ

本発表では、幼児から小学校低学年の子供に活用することができる福祉教育教材としての絵本の検討を行った。絵本には、マイノリティに対するエチケットや知識を直接的に読者に与えるものとマイノリティに関する事柄を寓話的に表したものがあった。年齢の低い子供にとっては、具体性のある直接的な内容の絵本とマイノリティに関する考え方が般化する寓話的な絵本の両方が必要であると考えられる。ただしマイノリティには、特異な外見的特徴を持ち、またそれによって周囲の人が違和感や偏見を持つようになるケースがあるので、特に子供の場合には母親や指導者はその特徴（例えば障害者の持つ障害部位）を隠そう、見せないようにしようとするのではなく、むしろ子供の好奇心を満たすように、写真絵本を含めた視覚的な情報を与えることが必要であると思われる。幼児期にそのような好奇心を持つことは当然であり、子供にそのことの罪悪感を持たせないようにしたい。子供のころに好奇心が満たされることは、生涯にわたるマイノリティに対する正しい認識が形成される第一歩となるのである（国際障害者年日本推進協議会,1983; Langer et al.,1976 ）。

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「ブック・リポート」についての学習

――『男と女　変わる力学』の場合――

新潟県立高田北城高等学校
早津秀雄

はじめに

読書するために、書物の選定にあたって欠かせないのが書評である。書評は新聞や雑誌に掲載され、さらに書評新聞・雑誌まで登場し、それらにはさまざまな工夫がこらされている。だから、書評欄を無視しては、今日では書物を十分に選択することはできないといわれている。特に、自分の専門や、いままで興味や関心のなかった領域では、書評に頼らざるを得ない。

ところが、最近では書評の権威が低下して、書評の影響力が薄くなり、大新聞の書評に取り上げられても、その本の売れ行きはそれほどでもないようである。書評の権威の低下には、読書離れなどいろいろあるが、最も大きな原因は書物の選択基準や評価基準が、はっきりしなくなってきたからである。

そこで、書物の選択にあたっては、たんに、知的だとかタテマエとか権威とかではなく、自分の専門領域や学習や教養・娯楽などについて、興味や関心をもったものを、選択することである。したがって、書物の選択基準を外から求めることが困難であるならば、自分なりの内面的な要求・嗜好をしっかりと持って評価することが必要である。さもないと、今日の書物の洪水・情報の氾濫に押し流されてしまい、積極的に立ち向かうことなどはできない。

書評は、読者に読むための判断資料を、簡潔にわかり易く紹介し提供して、読みの参考にするためのものである。自分でも必要な書物を選択し精読することによって、分析的・総合的にとらえる。そして、わかり易く表現し説得力のあるものにすることは、書物を批判し評価して、自分なりの「書評」する力を身につけることになる。

今日、「男女共生」の社会は避けられない。生徒はかような問題に、積極的に取り組もうとしている。しかし、どう取り組んだらよいか困惑しているのである。そこで、この度は「女性パワーの高揚を男性の立場で検証」した、書物『男と女　変わる力学』を選択させ、「共働き」・「男女雇用機会均等法」・「価値観の多様化」を中心にして、生徒に自分なりの「書評」（要約的読書報告）を書かせたのである。

「日本女性技術者フォーラム」（数野美つ子・東邦大理学部教授）が、「女性技術者就業環境とライフスタイルに関する調査」を４月に実施した（朝日新聞　１９９３年４月１日）。「自分たちの働く環境が厳しいと、グチを言っているだけでは、世の中は変わらない。どこがどう問題なのか、詳しく調べて、世間に訴えていこう。」という。この調査は、女性技術者・研究者の就業状況・就職意識・就労環境の実情などを正確に把握し、それを社会に公表して、現状の改善を図る事を目的としたものである。

国語科の「国語表現」で、「男女共生」の問題を取り上げたのも、『男と女　変わる力学』によって実態を把握し、こんごの改善を図る事を目的としたのである。そして、

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1　「家庭科」の男女共修の意図するもの

平成6年度から、「教育課程」の改定によって高校では、「家庭科」の「家庭一般」（4単位）を男子にも学習させ、いわば男女が共修することになった。

男女平等の教育をおこない、男女がお互いに人間として理解し合う、全人格的な教育を抜きにしては、家庭や職場での真の男女平等の達成などはあり得ないからである。「家庭一般」の目標には、「衣食住、家族、保育などに関する基礎的・基本的な知識と技術を家庭経営の立場から総合的、体験的に習得させ、家庭生活の充実向上を図る能力と態度を育てる。」とある。　注（1）

これからの「男女共生の時代」は、男が女を、女が男を、理解していかなければならないのに、現状では、排斥し合う関係から抜け切っていない。新時代は男女がお互いに自然な形で、かかわりを持って生きていかなければならない。「共生の社会」では、家庭や職場など、あらゆる場面で男女が対等にかかわりを持つこである。

しかし、男女共生の社会の実現は容易ならざる課題である。「男が変わればいい」とはまさに正論であるが、現実にはなかなか変わりようにない。伝統的な役割分担は生活のあらゆる分野に深く浸透しているからである。だが、女たちは価値観や行動様式を大きく変えようとしている。男たちは、その変化に追いつけず困惑を深めている。この両者の力学のバランスを保ち、正常化を図るためにも、「家庭科」の男女共修は不可欠なものといえよう。

高校では、受験勉強と活字離れで冬の時代である。女の生徒が、「わたし女ですもの」と言い出したら、成績の伸びが止まり積極性が失われて行くといわれている。「女らしさ」の社会化が、彼女らの「成就要求」を否定的にしてしまう。「成就要求」とは、自分は他人よりもすぐれた業績をあげたい、自分はこれだけのことができるのだ、ということを確認して、自信を持ちたいという要求なのである。これは、男女共通の要求である。ところが女の生徒の場合、高い学業成績や資質が、必ずしも称賛や成功に直結しないのである。それは、男性中心の日本の社会では、男子が女性よりも優れているべきだという通念に支配されているからである。そこで、成績のよい女の生徒は「女らしさ」の理想像からの逸脱者と見なされ、排斥されてしまう。

「家庭科」の男女共修が、男女が平等な人間として理解し合い、全人格的な教育を達成することを意図したものである。

2　「国語表現」における　ブック・リポートの作成

今日の高校教育（国語）に欠けているものとして、「現在の高校教育では、読書法・リポートの作成・口頭発表は望み難く、大学入学者はコモン・ベーシック（学問するための基礎・基盤）が欠けている。こうした日本の教育システム全体のひずみが、大学の教養教育を難しくしている。」と指摘されている。　注（2）

かように、国語教育のあり方が問い直されているのである。国語科教育の基本的・基礎的な学習は、やはり読書力・表現力の育成にあるということを、再確認しなければならない。その点、「国語表現」は新しい教科目であり、創意工夫のいかんによっては新境地の開拓も可能である。すなわち、「国語表現」においては、積極的に読書力・表現力を伸ばすために、「精読（読む）」したことを、「表現（書く・話す）」できるからである。そのために、「国語表現」における「ブック・リポートの作成」は不可欠である。精読の訓練のために、目標（論理的な思考力の育成）を掲げ、精読した証拠として

た報告文である。

A　ブック・リポートの作成にあたって

目的

（1）精読の訓練であり、本の内容を正しく批評批判的に読み取る力を高める。

（2）読み取った内容を、要領よく人に紹介・説明する練習であり、文章表現の養成である。

（3）本の内容を十分に消化・吸収することであり、まとまりのある豊かな知識・情報を入手する。

注意事項

（1）読者がその本の内容について、正確な知識がもてるよう十分に書かれているか。主題・要旨・主要論点等が述べられているか。

（2）著者の経歴・学識・立場・資格等が十分にのべられているか。

（3）わかりやすい構成・表現で書かれているか。

展開

（1）序、著者の略伝・専門等は、本との関連を意識して書く。

（2）本論、特に重要なもの、よく納得できなかったもの等、観点を定めて紹介。

（3）結び、本の長短・特色・成功度・最終評価等。

書評

（1）要約的読書報告、内容についての知識が少なく、評価する力が乏しいが、できるだけ内容を正しく理解するようにつとめる。

（2）書評的読書報告、内容について、ある程度の知識・批評能力がある。新聞・雑誌等で新刊書を紹介する。読者に読む判断資料を提供し、読みの参考にする。専門家向けの書評は、高級で詳しく固くて長い。一般向けの書評は、新聞等で簡単で分かりやすい。

（3）評論的読書報告、評論形式で相当の評価能力を持ち、評価・解釈は主で時には紹介を省略する。著名な本を取り上げることが多い。

B　実施にあたって

（1）実施日時、　１９９３年　5月　8時間

（2）テキスト、　鹿嶋　敬著『男と女　変わる力学――家庭・企業・社会』
　　　　　　　　岩波新書　１９８９年　4月

（3）対象生徒、　3年・選択生　29人（男　11人、女１８人）

（4）学習の経緯

a　事前に生徒に対して、読書と表現の重要性について説明し、5月の連休にテキストの通読をさせた。

b　評論文の読みの指導と、テキストの精読をさせた。（4時間）

c　表現の指導と、ブック・リポートの書き方の練習をさせた。（3時間）

d　ブック・リポートを発表させ、評価をさせた。（1時間）

e　ブック・リポートの提出（２０００字、「要約的読書報告」を中心にして）

f　評価

C　評価にあたって

（１）重要性－－－－読者に対する効果・有益さ。
（２）新鮮さ－－－－材料・アプローチ・分野・結論・論証。
（３）事実の正確さ・論証の確実さ・結論の妥当性・対象範囲の適切さ。
（４）読者にとって、分かりやすさ・読みやすさ。

４　むすび

「男子、厨房に入るべし」といって、自立を望む女性が増え、家事も仕事も男女平等であり、「男子、厨房に入らず」等とはいっておれなくなってきた。すなわち、男子の生活面での自立が求められている。自立とは、自己の確立を通して、自他の人生を大切にし協力し合い、生きていくことである。

「男も育児を経験する」ことについて、今年の大学入試の小論文に出題されていた。（千葉大教育学部中学家庭科）　注（２０）　また、「女性の地位の向上を図る」ために家庭での教育の必要性が論じられていた。　注（２１）　この度の「国語表現」の学習の３年の選択者の中には、かような問題に関心をもち、かような大学を志向する生徒もおるのである。『男と女　変わる力学』をテキストに選定し、ブック・リポートを作成させたのも、かようなところにある。

ブック・リポートは、著述にしたがって、「共働き」・「男女雇用機会均等法」・「価値観の多様化」を中心にして、「要約的読書報告」とした。

１９７５年の国際婦人年以来、「男は仕事・女は家庭」という性別役割分業が崩壊し、女性の社会進出は国是となった。アメリカではクリントン大統領夫人ヒラリーの活躍が伝えられ、政治分野への進出が議論を呼んでいる。かよな時、日本の女性は「子育てに専念。手が離れたらパートで働く。介護が必要な老人が出たら、退職して在宅介護。余力はボランテア。親と夫を看取ったら、働く女性並の遺族年金をあげよう。この間、税金・保険料不要で優遇する。」という。　注（２２）　ここで尊重されるのは、女性の人権ではなく、主として家事・育児・介護を無料で担当する主婦の役割である。かような性別役割分業の温存では、これからの長い８０年の人生は、家族の中に埋没してしまい、一個の人間としては生きられない。ブック・リポートの焦点を、このようなところに向けて論じもらいたかった。さもないと、准看護婦の前近代的な「お礼奉公」のような横行を、許しかねないからである。

ボーヴォワールは「女性はつくられる」といっているが、「男性もつくられる」のである。すなわち、既成概念や社会通念・常識によってである。かようなものを排除して知性と教養を育み、「男女共生」という、男女平等教育を徹底し、人間性の向上を図っていかなければならない。『男と女　変わる力学』は、かようなものに応えるものを持っている。生徒には、そこを見出してもらいたかったのである。

「ブック・リポート」は、たんに、読んだり書いたりするためのものではない。読んだことについて真剣に考察し、書くことによってさらに思索を深め、さらに経験することによって体得していかなければならない。やっと緒についたばかりの生徒である。拙なるところもあるが、こんごとも、学習をすることによって発展を期待するものである。

5　要約

「男女共生」の社会の実現は、容易ならざる課題である。男が女を、女が男を理解しあらゆる場面で平等に対処し、生きていかなければならなくなってきた。いまや「わたしは女ですもの」といっていては、「成就要求」がさまたげられてしまう。「家庭科」の男女共修は、男女が平等な人間として、人間性を育成するところにある。人間性の育成は、全教科目において行われるべきである。

国語科の「国語表現」においては、読書力・表現力の育成にある。「ブック・リポート」の作成は、いわば情報処理教育の一環であり、創造力の開発を促すためのものである。

『男と女　変わる力学』については、「女性パワーの高揚を男性の立場で検証されたすぐれた書物である」と松田道雄が推奨している。ブック・リポート作成のためのテキストに用いたのもかようなところにある。この書物は、「共働き」「均等法」「価値観の多様化」等を中心にして述べられている。なお、生徒はかような点について考察し、ブック・リポートの形式は、「要約的読書報告」によってまとめた。

「男が変わる・女が変わる・社会が変わる」世の中である。「男女雇用機会均等法」制定は、女である前に「人間」としての、「女の時代」（原始、女性は太陽であった）に、応えるためのものであった。女が働く動機は、経済的な自立もさることながら、豊かな人間性を構築しようとするところにある。職場でも、経済的効率を追求する上からも、後顧の憂えなく働けるよう、家庭環境作りに乗り出してきている。

「できない男よりできる女」が求められている。能力評価基準の変更がなされつつある。女たちは、バークレー市の「男のためのセンター」にあるように、「男たちよ、われわれはもう実現不可能、かつ抑制的な男性像に合致しようとして、悩みやストレスに苦しみ、人間性を喪失することは、もう御免だ」といっているのである。夫婦共通の価値観を育てる努力をしなければ、家庭は崩壊してしまう。夫の自立・自己改革が迫られているのである。高学歴女性の意識は革新的である。男女間の「力学」を変える尖兵の役目を果しているからである。

雇用の多様化には、メリットとデメリットをもたらしている。家事や育児による、女はパートタイム、男はフルタイムと、固定化せざるを得ないところに問題がある。また職業の選択にあたって、労働の量よりも質に目を向けるべき時がきた。

「女子学生亡国論」（１９６２年）から、男女平等教育の徹底に向け邁進した今日、高学歴社会の女性は、伝統的な価値観から自由であり、仕事志向と個人志向を重視した自立型が多く、しかも性別役割分業の意識をなくしている。よりよく生きるために、人間的で豊かな社会をつくるためには、男女共に、多様な役割を分担し、それを楽しむ「ゆとり」をもった社会に、仕組みを変えていかなければならないのである。

読書観・読書法の指導

倉敷市立短期大学　定金恒次

1　はじめに

積極的な自己啓発が求められる青年期ともなれば，人間形成における「読書」の意義や効用を深く認識し，各種各様の読書法を知るとともに，目的や場に応じた読書法を会得しなければならない．更には自らの読書生活を顧み，現在及び将来における自己の読書設計をうちたてる必要がある．そのためには，中学・高校の時期から絶えず読書の重要性を認識させ，自らの読書生活を反省させる指導や，読書観・読書法などについての啓蒙を図る指導を施し，望ましい読書生活のあり方を考えさせることが必要である．今回はそうした面の指導に焦点をあてた実践研究を発表してみたい．

2　指導の体系と計画

読書観・読書法の指導

	国語科	学校図書館
指導の主体	国語科	学校図書館
指導のねらい	1　文学に限らず，すぐれた作品を読むことの重要性を認識させるとともに，各種形態の作品の読解法，鑑賞法を理解させ会得させる． 2　読書の意義と必要性を考察させ，読書によって自らを高めようとする意欲を育てる． 3　読書の方法や心構えを理解させるとともに，目的や形態に応じた読書技能を身につけさせる．	1　読書の意義と正しい読書法を会得することの必要性を自覚させ，積極的に読書しようとする意欲を育てる． 2　各自の読書生活を反省させ，望ましい読書生活の素地を養う． 3　自己に適した読書法を会得させるとともに，目的や場に応じた能率的，効果的な読書法を身につけさせる．
指導の方法	1　文学教材の鑑賞指導，論説教材の読解指導等に際して，それらの読み方・味わい方を作品に即して指導する． 2　文学教材の読解・鑑賞指導の導入または整理の段階に用意された「文学作品の読み方」「読書のしかた」などの解説文を通して指導する． 3　「読書論」教材（教科書に採録された評論文または自主編成教材）で指導する．	1　古今東西の碩学の「読書訓」「読書観」に触れさせる．（毎週） 2　各教師からの「読書論」を紹介する．（随時） 3　全校生徒から各自の「読書法」についての作文を募集する．（10月） 4　読書体験発表会を開く．（11月）

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3　指導の実際

(1)　国語科における指導

中学校・高等学校の国語教科書（高校の場合は「国語Ⅰ」「国語Ⅱ」「現代文」）には，「文学とは何か」「小説とは何か」「小説の読み方」「小説の鑑賞」「論理的な文章の読み方」など，文学作品を中心とした各種類型の作品の本質，特徴，読み方，味わい方等についての理解を深めるための解説文が用意されている場合が多い．また，読書へのいざないを図るとともに読書への理解と認識を深め，読書生活の充実深化を図るためのいわゆる読書論教材を載録しているものも多い。これらの教材を最大限に活用して，読書観や読書法についての指導を推進する．

①　文学教材の読解・鑑賞の導入または整理段階において．

国語科において行う文学の読解・鑑賞指導は，文学の正しい読解・鑑賞法を会得させるとともに，文学や読書についての認識を高め，広く文学や読書に親しむ態度を養うことをめざしている．そこで大部分の教科書では中・高校ともいずれかの学年において，文学教材への導入または整理のために文学（小説）鑑賞法に関する解説文を載録し，文学（小説）鑑賞のしかたや読書の意義・効用・心構えなどを知識として理解させようとしている。これらの教材を通して文学鑑賞の方法を徹底的に指導するとともに，読書に対する認識や読書法についての理解を充分深めるように意を注ぐべきである．

次に掲げるのは，教科書教材「小説の鑑賞」（吉田精一の文章）の指導の一環として生徒に書かせた同教材への「所見文」である．

「小説の鑑賞」を読んで　　　岡山県立矢掛高校　1年　N・K（男）

ぼくは今まで，小説は楽しむためのものであり，したがって読書は娯楽以外の何物でもないと考えていた。しかし，国語で「小説の鑑賞」を学んでから，小説がいかに厳粛で神聖なものであるか，そして小説を読むことが人間にとっていかに重要なものであるかということを知った。また，娯楽を与えるだけの小説と，知らない魂の奥底を教えてくれる小説との違いがわかったことは大きな喜びだ。

さて，教科書には小説の鑑賞方法として3つの段階があると書いてある。第1の段階は楽しんで読むこと。そのためには作中の世界の中に入り込まなければならないということだ。第2の段階は読んだ印象を整理し反省すること。そのためには作品が語りかけているものの中心点をとらえて，その意味をつかみ，作者の人生批評や主題の持つ問題，その展開のしかたに対して読者の立場から是非を論じるということだ。そして娯楽を与えるための小説は第1の段階だけにとどまるので，そのような小説を読む人々はものを考えるうえではなまけ者だ，と述べている。このことから，まんがや週刊誌ばかりを読むと考える力が育たないということの根拠をはっきり理解することができた。

次に教科書には「楽しむだけの小説とは常識では考えられない異常な事件や，想像もつかない非凡な人間の出没する作品で，われわれの全然知らない土地に連れて行き，珍しい夢を見せてくれるが，また自分の知らない魂の奥底を教えてくれるということはなく，また奇抜な事件や人間を活躍させるために

風変わりな環境や現代でない時代を背景においた小説である。」と述べている。するとすぐれた小説とは，自分の知らない魂の奥底を知らせてくれるものであり，人生についての考えを深めさせてくれるような作品であるということができると思う。そこでぼくは，それらの小説の具体的なものについて考えてみた。ぼくの読んだものでは鞍馬天狗や里見八犬伝などは前者に属し，ジャン＝クリストフ，ビルマのたて琴，山椒太夫，あすなろ物語などは後者に属すると思う。また，ぼくたちは中学校の時，「うその小説」と「真の小説」ということを習ったが，前者がうその小説であり，後者が真の小説に当たると思う。

ところで，ぼくの読書生活を反省してみると，探偵小説や推理小説など前者に属するものが圧倒的に多い。それらは想像力を豊かにするが，「われわれを欺いて，現実の生活の外にのがれさせ，現在のわれわれとの線を断ち切ってしまう」のだ。だから人生について考えさせてくれるはずがなく，自分の知らない魂の奥底を教えてくれるはずもない。こんな小説ばかり読んでいたのでは，考える力を伸ばすことも思想を豊かにすることもできない。

「小説の鑑賞」を学んで，どんな小説がすぐれた小説であるかということがよくわかった。そして，すぐれた小説を読まなければならないことの理由も理解できた。これからはすぐれた小説を読んで自分を深めていこうと思う。

② 文学教材等の鑑賞指導の発展として

文学教材等の鑑賞指導の発展として，上記解説文の内容に添った「鑑賞文」を書かせる。

＜鑑賞文例＞　別紙 資料 1

③ 教科書「読書論」教材または自主編成教材『読書論』を通して

多くの教科書には，読書法，読書論に関する教材（論説・評論）を載録し，読書生活の深化充実を意図している。これらの教材を扱う際に，読書についての認識を深めるとともに，正しい読書生活や望ましい読書法を会得させるよう積極的な指導を施すべきである。なお，教科書に「読書論」教材が載録されていない場合は，教師自らの手で選んだ，小泉信三，三木清，谷川徹三，亀井勝一郎，ヘルマン・ヘッセ，瀬沼茂 等の碩学や著名人の読書論書を紹介して，ぜひ読むように推奨したいものである。

次に示すのは教科書載録の読書論教材「読書について」（谷川徹三の文章）の指導の一環として書かせた「所見文」である。（別紙 資料 2）

(2) 学校図書館における指導

① 古今東西の碩学の「読書訓」や「読書観」に触れさせる。

古今東西にわたる碩学や教養人の「読書訓」「読書にまつわる名言」「読書に関する故事」等で中・高校生の読書啓蒙に役立つと思われるものを収集し（生徒にも採集させる），毎週図書館に掲示する。更に各クラスの図書委員を通して各教室にも掲示させ，その意味や読書に対する姿勢などを吟味させる。それに対する所見文も募集する。

＜所見文例＞　別紙 資料 3，4

② 著名人の読書論等を紹介し，読後所見文を募集する．
〈所見文例〉　(別紙 資料5)

③ 各教師からの「読書論」や「読書体験談」等を随時図書館報に掲載する．

④ 全校生徒から，各自の「読書法」「読書体験」等についての作文を募集する．(別紙 資料6)

⑤ 読書体験発表会，読書法座談会等を開く．

⑥ 先人の読書にまつわるエピソードを紹介する．

Adverse Effects of Lower Cognitive Processing Capacity on Achievement
What Can We Do?

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Adverse Effects of Lower Cognitive Processing Capacity on Achievement
What Can We Do?

Schools in the United States, and probably many other countries of the world, face the problem of low student achievement. For example, in some school systems, an aggregate of 32% of kindergartners, first graders, and second graders fail; and only 54% of entering ninth graders actually graduate high school. What causes the problem? If this question can be precisely answered, then the search for a solution can focus on it instead of the almost random attempts being made to improve education. Therefore, this presentation will discuss (1) past and present reform initiatives, (2) the classroom problem, and (3) the solution to the problem. While the data to be presented were collected in U.S. schools, the findings should generalize to most schools in the world.

Past and Present Reform Initiatives

A survey of past and present reform initiatives should provide clues to what works and what does not. The discussion begins with the six national goals outlined by the State Governors and President Bush in 1991, and then examines some specific reform proposals.

In a quest to improve achievement, in April 1991 the State Governors, together with then U.S. President George Bush, announced six National Education Goals. The first three of these state that by the year 2000: (1) all children will start school ready to learn; (2) the high school graduation rate will increase to at least 90%; and (3) American students will leave grades, 4, 8, and 12 having demonstrated competence in challenging subject matter (English, mathematics, science, history, and geography).

Based on these goals, the New American Schools Development Corporation (NASDC) was formed. Its efforts, however, were criticized by Mark Sherry, a panelist who reviewed proposals submitted to NASDC (1992): He said, "The great majority of proposals paid little attention to *instructional techniques* [italics added], small rural communities, drugs and violence, handicapped students, connections to other countries and cultures, and motivating the learner" (p. 301).

The response of International Reading Association to the national goals expressed the conviction that to achieve the national goals in the shortest possible time, American educators must: (1) emphasize professional development; (2) *focus on curriculum and instruction* [italics added]; (3) link school, family, and community; and (4) adopt assessment strategies that inform teaching and benefit the learner (1993).

A more recent search for "Perfect Schools" reported by the *U.S. News & World Report*, January 11, 1993, suggested nine reforms to revolutionize American education. However, none of the suggested reforms considered classroom practices, the essence of student learning. If these "reforms" are to be the trends for the 1990s, then the so-called *bold initiatives* of the 1980s that made little or no difference in student achievement (Cuban, 1990) will be repeated because teaching practices will not have not changed (Murphy, Evertson, & Radnofsky, 1991).

Snow's (1986) suggestions address teaching practices. He said that one reason for poor student achievement could be a failure to understand individual differences among students and to "connect them directly to the design of adaptive educational systems, teacher training programs, and diagnostic assessment devices" (p. 1037). Among the individual differences, he included cognitive abilities, achievement motivation, interests, and creativity.

While the IRA and Snow's positions complement each other, the specifics are still difficult to delineate. Therefore, I am suggesting two additional reasons for poor student achievement: (1) a failure to analyze test data to isolate areas needing reform and (2) a failure to adapt teaching and learning methods to individual differences in learning ability or cognitive processing capacity (CPC)—a person's ability to look briefly at things and to recall them immediately thereafter (e.g., Furukawa, 1970, 1977, 1991). A student's CPC can be measured by two types of tests.

CPC Tests

CPC is measured by two types of tests: picture-CPC (Furukawa & Sunshine, 1977) and Word-CPC (Furukawa, 1977). In both cases, the pictures and word pairs should be of objects and words already known to the testee. The picture-CPC test consists of 25 pictures shown at the rate of one every two seconds in sets of 5, 10, and 10 (for a sample list of items on a test, see Table 1). The set of 5 is used to ascertain whether a child understands the test directions and may even be considered a warmup task. The average of the two sets of 10 becomes a child's CPC score. With each correctly recalled object counting as one point, the average CPC of a two-year-old is 1.5 and increases to 4 for third graders.

Practice	Set One	Set Two
rifle	bed	television
hat	flowers	tree
bird	toothbrush	comb
watch	baseball bat	football
lamp	spoon	fork
	lion	dog
	truck	bus
	ship	helicopter
	policeman	doctor
	key	ladder

Table 1. Picture-CPC Test.

The word-CPC test is composed of two sets of 20 adjective-noun pairs. For a given grade, the words are selected from texts of lower grades (for a sample CPC test suitable for high school and college students, see Table 2). All 20 pairs of a set are shown simultaneously for one minute

Set One
fresh strawberries
moving moment
automated system
safety rule
equipped laboratories
good taste
farm clothes
underprivileged children
loving care
church bazaar
solar gases
health foods
college teaching
all cards
entire family
each letter
sharper picture
predominant group
moon's surface
ancient art

Set Two
American colonies
fertile lands
small part
foreign trade
raw materials
postal service
every tree
another adventure
native civilization
historic voyage
smaller colonies
largest items
king's power
peaceful conditions
expert navigator
fierce people
growing season
large map
early efforts
world leadership

Table 2. Word-CPC Test for High School and College Students.

and followed by a two-minute, free recall period. This process is repeated with the second set of 20 word pairs. Scoring one-half point for each correctly recalled word, the average recalled—ignoring minor misspellings—on the two sets becomes a person's CPC score. For fourth graders, it is approximately 4 and increases to approximately 7 in high school. Usually, females have slightly higher scores at these levels of education, differences that continue on into late adulthood (Furukawa & Kruggel, 1993).

Because of the simplicity of the tests and their administration, anyone can prepare and administer their own CPC test. The test is recommended because it measures what all teachers have known since the beginning of teaching—there are fast learners to slow learners in our classes. However, for the first time, the CPC test permits us to quantify this ability; therefore, it permits us to adjust learning to each student's CPC or *individual difference*. Before discussing adjustment measures, let us consider data that implicates CPC as a major source of the classroom problem.

The Classroom Problem

Classroom research implicates CPC as a critical learning variable. From preschool through college, there is a positive correlation between test scores and CPC (Furukawa, 1991). For example, from the third through fifth grades, the picture-CPC test correlated .50 with reading vocabulary scores and .43 with reading comprehension scores on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (Furukawa & Sunshine, 1977). In the fourth and fifth grades, correlations between the word-CPC test and Stanford Achievement Test (Stanford) ranged from .67 in reading and math to a high of .83 for boys (Furukawa, 1993a). In middle school, the correlations for males were .61 in reading, .60 in math, and .53 in language (Furukawa, 1993b). The correlations for females on the same Stanford categories are much lower: .17, -.01, .07, respectively. Consequently, high-CPC students in elementary school and middle school scored mostly in the above-average category on the Stanford in reading (Figures 1 & 2); the middle-CPC students scored mainly average, and the low-CPC students normally scored below average.

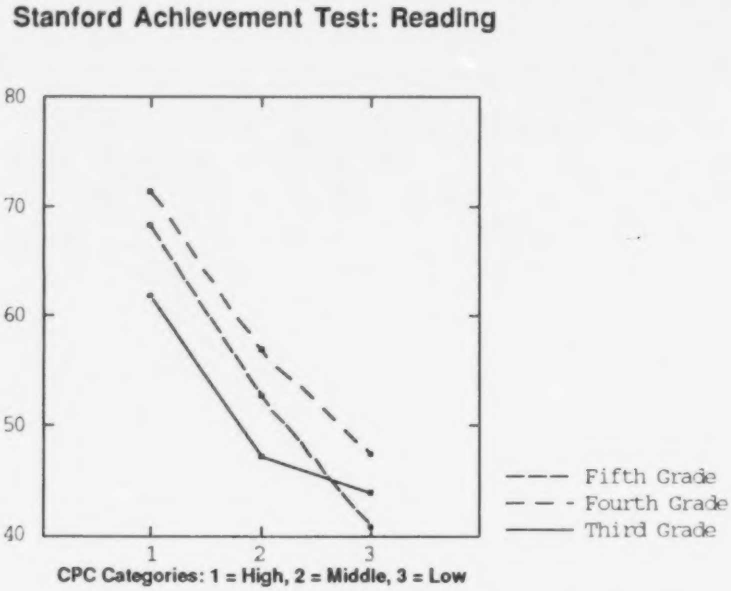

Figure 1. Achievement by CPC Categories: Elementary School

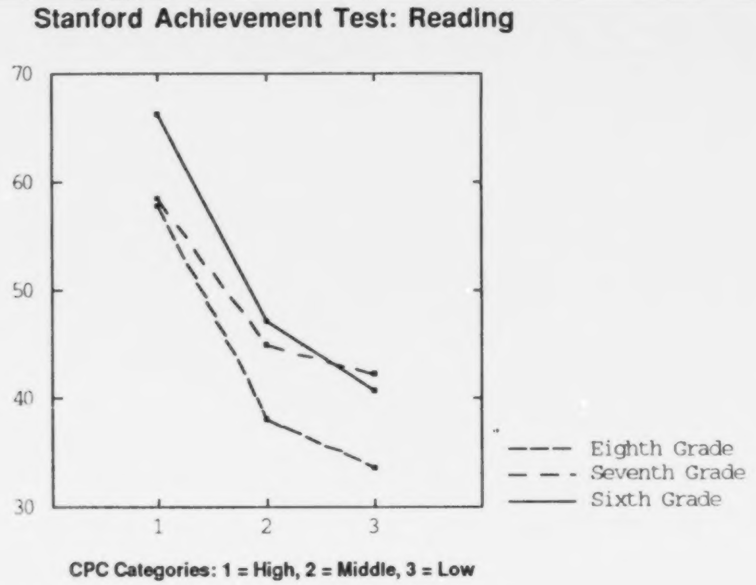

Figure 2. Achievement by CPC Categories: Middle School

On high school biology tests, the word-CPC test scores correlated .68, .90, and .80 for all students in a control group, after correction for attenuation of range (Furukawa, Blenckstone, Dudley, & Hutton, 1980). At the college level, we also find that high-CPC students are twice as likely to have A and B grades, but only half as likely to have D and F grades when compared to low-CPC students (Furukawa, Cohen, & Sumpter, 1982).

In summary, all of these findings emphasize the importance of CPC in analyzing student achievement, especially for late-maturing boys. From the consideration of the major variable that affects achievement, the discussion now turns to a solution.

The Solution

A part of the solution to low achievement is the CPC method. Therefore, the components of the CPC method are presented, explained, and illustrated. The CPC method individualizes learning by requiring learners to process units of information (a) in quantities that match the learner's CPC; (b) from a pyramid of knowledge, with a base of relatively simple stimuli or concepts ascending to an apex with a superordinate concept capable of subsuming subordinate concepts; and (c) by chunking them into a single, meaningful whole.

CPC method of teaching and studying. The first principle on quantities of information means that teachers and students must consider information (usually nouns or adjective-noun pairs that are subjects of sentences and paragraphs) in quantities that do not exceed the CPC of the learner. For example, the typical kindergartner can only remember three things; therefore, they should not be required to master a "long" word, such as "someone." This word can be taught as: so, me, one, then some and one, and finally as someone. To do otherwise would lead to a reduction in performance (e.g., Furukawa, 1977).

The second principle on the organization of information into a pyramidal structure can be illustrated in two ways—by an actual pyramid for early childhood education and a chunking study outline for higher grades. The fox pyramid shown below (Figure 3) is used in teaching the three letters f, o, x to kindergartners who have a CPC of approximately 3 (Furukawa, 1988). The pyramid has vertical and horizontal dimensions; neither of these should exceed the CPC of 3.

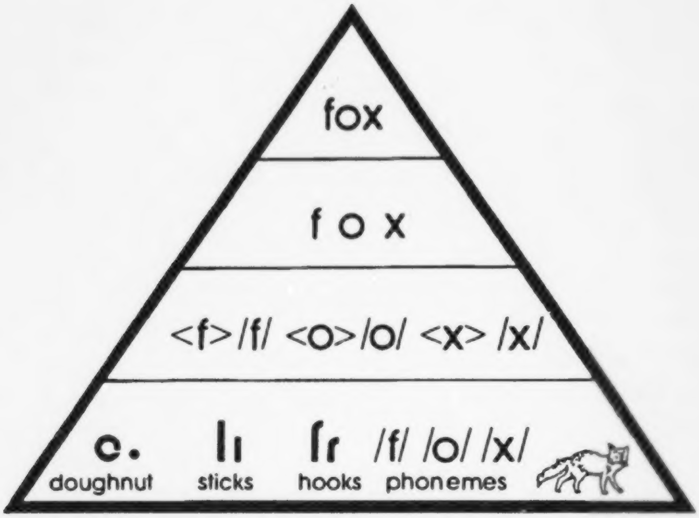

Figure 3. Pyramid of knowledge

At the bottom of the pyramid, the prerequisite knowledge for learning the letters f, o, x is given. If this prerequisite knowledge is not available to a child, it must be taught before attempting to teach the information located at each of the higher levels of the pyramid. If the prerequisites exist, then the three letter shapes located on the second tier of the pyramid can be taught as a matching task, and three sounds can also be taught by asking children to copy the sounds made by the teacher. These shapes and sounds are followed by three letters, and finally, there is a single word at the apex of the pyramid. If the prerequisites do not exist, then learning the three letters becomes very difficult for a child, because the child must consider all of the discrete bits of information that make up each letter, such as shapes and sounds. The complexity increases, too, if the shapes are broken down into component attributes, such as curved lines and straight lines and their relationships in forming letters.

A more complex example is given in Table 3 for a section on the CPC method. From this tabular presentation, you can see that the pyramid of knowledge is another name for an outline but with two major exceptions: (1) the outline is limited mainly to nouns and adjective-noun pairs, the subjects of sentences, paragraphs, and sections; (2) the outline is also governed by the CPC limitation—for the average adult, there should never be more than seven units of information under a heading (e.g., under "Capacity").

The final principle, chunking, can be illustrated by referring to the pyramid shown in Figure 3. After the second level, each higher level contains an association of the lower level information. In other words, everything is chunked together at each higher level until everything is formed into a single, meaningful whole (fox) at the apex of the pyramid.

A more complex example of chunking can be illustrated by referring to Table 3. In Table 3, all information subordinate to the headings "Three components, Capacity, Pyramid of Knowledge, and Chunking " are associated with these headings. Finally, the headings are integrated with CPC Method of Teaching/Studying to form a single, meaningful whole so the recall of the title ("CPC Method") will lead to the surfacing of all related information.

- I. CPC Method of Teaching/Studying
  - A. Three components
    - 1. Capacity
    - 2. Pyramid of knowledge
    - 3. Chunking
  - B. Capacity
    - 1. Information quantities
    - 2. Examples
  - C. Pyramid of knowledge
    - 1. Simple: fox pyramid
    - 2. Complex: CPC method
  - D. Chunking
    - 1. Simple to complex
    - 2. Fox pyramid
    - 3. CPC method
    - 4. Information load
    - 5. Practice or review
    - 6. test
  - E. Summary

Table 3. Pyramid of Knowledge.

During the process of chunking, too much information can overload memory and adversely affect learning. In a like manner, too little information can lead to poor retention, since the information has not been transferred to long-term memory as a single, abstract whole. Practice or review is essential to learning, and should lead to automatic use of the CPC study method and recall of the highest level superordinate chunk for the information desired (e.g., "I. CPC Method of Teaching/Studying" for the data outlined in Table 3. Ideally, too, practice should occur within seconds after the initial encounter with the information, with subsequent rehearsals being distributed across time and focused on materials that have not been completely mastered. On the day before a test, a student should be able to silently recall the major headings and all subordinate information learned for a test in a matter of minutes.

To summarize, maximum learning can be achieved by requiring students to process units of information (1) in quantities that match their CPCs (C); (2) from a pyramid of knowledge (P), with a base of relatively simple stimuli or concepts ascending to an apex with a superordinate concept capable of subsuming subordinate concepts; and (3) chunked (C) into a single, meaningful whole for application in relevant problem-solving situations. In short, use C, P, C.

Supportive findings. To establish the viability of the CPC method, a summary of supportive data collected at the elementary, middle school, high school, and college levels is presented.

At the elementary school, from kindergarten through first grade, students received supplementary reading instructions based on the CPC method for about 15 minutes, three times a week. At the end of the period, the children taught the CPC way read twice as many words as the children in a control group (Furukawa, Rieger, Sobotka, & Thomas, 1980). The poorest reader among the children taught the CPC way surpassed 71% of the control group children.

In high school biology, a class of tenth graders taught how to study the CPC way was compared to a control class of students (Furukawa, Blenckstone, Dudley, & Hutton, 1980). Both classes learned biology the same way from a single teacher. At the end of the first three weeks of instruction, on a 30-item multiple-choice test, the CPC class had 54% of the students scoring 20 or higher. The non-CPC class had only 11% scoring 20 or higher. The difference between the classes remained across three tests spanning a period of three months. Also, the students who had learned how to study the CPC way improved their test scores in other subjects besides biology.

At the college level, the findings supported the use of the CPC method. For example, the passing rate of conditionally accepted students increased from 38% to 90% when they used the CPC method Furukawa, Cohen, & Sumpter, 1982). Furthermore, while 93% of the higher CPC students passed an introductory psychology course with a grade of C or higher, 86% of the lower CPC students also managed to do so when using the CPC study method. Despite these favorable findings, it should be noted that, by using the CPC study method, high-CPC students earned twice as many A and B grades than the low-CPC students.

Summary

The key elements of this presentation are as follows:

- Educational reform is necessary
- Educational reform should focus on teaching and studying
- CPC is a major variable that affects learning
- The CPC method of teaching/studying successfully adjusts learning to individual differences in CPC.
- To improve achievement, use C, P, C.

Postscript

Finally, time does not permit a more detailed explanation of the CPC method and its applications or how it fits into a broader context encompassing the entire educational spectrum. However, it should be pointed out that the CPC method is only a part of a more comprehensive CPC Educational System that includes not only the CPC method of teaching/studying but also classroom management, curriculum, motivation, evaluation, counseling, and educational management (Furukawa, 1992). All of these components are designed to complement the teaching method to improve student achievement.

Thank you for allowing me to share my research findings with you, and I look forward to future information exchanges.

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The Impact of Foreign Language Literacy on Higher Education in Thailand*

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Introduction

Literacy, either in a basic or functional form, has been generally perceived as a person's ability to read and write his mother tongue rather than a second or a foreign language. According to Unesco a person is literate when he is able to read and write a short simple statement on his everyday life (Lind & Johnson, 1980), while a functionally literate person must be able to "engage in all those activities in which literacy is required for effective functioning of his group and community and also for enabling him to continue to use reading, writing and calculation for his own and the community's development" (Unesco, 1978). Based on the definitions and concepts of literacy as specified by Unesco one can perceive that only a mother tongue plays an important role in a common person's daily life. But in a complex and modern society, particularly in multiethnic and multilingual societies which make up the majority of the nations of the world (Wagner, 1983) the pluralistic and multiple ways of life dominate all business or educational transactions. Literacy in a person's first language or his mother tongue, therefore, may not suffice for effective functioning of his group and community. Thus, it is inevitable that a person living in an urban area need to have functional literacy in a second or a foreign language.

Thailand has experienced such a dilemma of literacy along with her economic, political and educational progress. While the nation has launched a massive campaign on eradication of illiteracy for many decades, a quiet and reluctant movement on the propagation of foreign language literacy has also begun in a Thai school system. Two main groups of foreign languages were known to the Thai people: the Asian languages and the European languages. Among the Asian languages, Pali and Sanskrit took a deep root into a Thai school system since they are the languages of the Buddhist Church. In fact, many Thai words are derived from Pali and Sanskrit. Other Asian languages such as Chinese, Japanese and Malay have come into a school system after the introduction of the modern system of education into Thailand by King Chulalongkorn the Great during 1868 to 1910. In fact, these languages were introduced to the Thai people through the contact with the Chinese merchants, the Japanese and the Malay since the Ayudhya period from 1350 to 1767 (Syamananda, 1968, p. 42).

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The European introduced their languages to Thailand when they arrived during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, but they made no serious efforts to spread them except for the French missionaries who established their center at Ayudhya during the reign of King Narai the Great (Syamananda, 1968, p. 42). Among the Europeans who opened relations with Thailand, the Portuguese were the first group who came to Thailand in 1511, then, followed by the Spanish in 1598, the Dutch in 1604, the English in 1612, and the French in 1662. Through the long years of contact with these Europeans some Thais must have learned these Europeans' languages but real efforts to promote the study of foreign languages were not made until Chulalongkorn, or Rama V, mounted the throne in 1868. The fact was that no school was available to teach them before that time.

Records from the history of Thailand reveal the fact that learning a foreign language is to follow a royal path. That is the initiation is from the royal consent. King Mongkut or Rama IV started his English lessons from his American missionary friends, studied Latin with the Roman Catholic bishop and possessed a good working knowledge of English. It was witnessed by the fact that King Mongkut corresponded with President Abraham Lincoln of the U.S.A. and Sir John Bowring, Governor of Hong Kong, who represented Great Britain in concluding a new treaty with the King in 1855. With a strong desire to see his children acquire a good knowledge of English, King Mongkut employed Mrs. Anna

Leonowens, an English widow from Singapore, as their teacher for about five years. Chulalongkorn, who succeeded King Mongkut, continued and expanded his modernization policy in most aspects, and he has laid a firm ground of teaching and learning of English in the school for the royal children as well as for the common Thai youths. Beside English, many foreign languages have been introduced to Thai students since the establishment of two important educational network and institutions: the Ministry of Education in 1892, and Chulalongkorn University in 1917.

At present, many foreign languages both from Asia and Europe are offered in Thai schools at the secondary and tertiary levels. These are English, Japanese, Chinese, Malay, French, German, Modern Arabic, Spanish, Italian, Russian, Pali, Sanskrit, and Khmer. Among these languages, English is the most popular one. Students may choose to learn English as early as in Grade 5. Malay and Chinese are more commonly used by Thai people in certain parts of the country, and they almost attain the status of second languages. Since English is the most important foreign language in higher education all institutions at a tertiary level offer English courses as part of liberal education or as preparation for a future career. Other foreign languages such as Pali, Sanskrit, and Khmer, are mainly in higher education. These classical languages are studied for their linguistic and historic values, with a particular emphasis on their relationships with the Thai language. Although many foreign languages are offered in Thai schools and universities, and modern teaching techniques and methodology are implemented with new teaching materials, there are still some problems regarding students' acquisition of foreign languages. There are some impact of foreign language literacy on higher education in Thailand. This paper will outline the main purposes of foreign language teaching at the tertiary level, achievements of learning foreign languages, and to consolidate means for implementing effective foreign language programs in the institutions of higher learning in Thailand.

Purposes of Foreign Language Teaching

There are two main purposes of foreign language teaching at the tertiary level: (1) as part of liberal education with humanistic viewpoints and (2) as a tool for a future career with utilitarian viewpoints (Wongsotorn, 1982, p. 201).

Results of a preliminary survey on the teaching and learning of foreign languages in ten Thai universities give more specific details of the two main purposes of foreign language teaching as mentioned above.

The Department Heads of ten universities: seven are government controlled and three are private universities--have arranged the purposes of foreign language teaching in their order of importance as in the following :

1) For enriching the students' experiences in learning the languages and cultures of the peoples in the world community.
2) For providing a basic language requirement for a Bachelor's Degree program,
3) For serving the students' need in career planning,
4) For serving the need for the national economic and social development planning,
5) For serving the needs of private organizations in using foreign languages in their business transactions,

The purposes of foreign language teaching as shown above reflect the needs of an institution to render services to both of its students and the society where private organizations as well as the government are the receipients of this endeavor. There are some interactions between the university and its social counterparts in their attempt to promote foreign language literacy nationwide.

Trends of the Teaching and Learning of Foreign Languages in Thailand

To project on the trends of the teaching and learning of foreign languages in Thai universities a survey has made recently by asking the Heads of the Foreign Languages Departments to give the rank order of the foreign languages offered in their university according to the number of students enrolled in each course at present and for the past three years. Although the survey's returns have been not completed, a sample of eleven respondents from ten universities (out of 26) can display some trends of the foreign language learning and teaching.

Table 1 shows the language courses offered in ten universities. These are (1) Ramkhamhaeng University, (2) Chulalongkorn University (3) Kasetsart University,(4) Prince of Songkhla University, (5) Chiang Mai University, (6) Khonkaen University (7) Srinakarintrwirote University, (8) Bangkok University, (9) Dhurakitbhandit University, and (10) Assumption University. They were asked to compare the rank order of the number of students enrolled at present (1992) and the past three years from the 1989 to 1991 academic years.

Table 1 Rank Order of the Number of Students Enrolled in Each Foreign Language Course from 1989 - 1991 and in 1992

Foreign Language Course Offered	Rank of Number of Students Enrolled			
	1939 - 1991		1992(2nd Semester)	
	Rank	N. of U*	Rank	N. of U*
English	1	(10)	1	(10)
French	2	(9)	2	(9)
German	2	(9)	2	(9)
Japanese	4	(8)	4	(8)
Chinese	5	(7)	4	(8)
Spanish	6	(3)	6	(3)
Malay	7	(2)	7	(2)
Pali	7	(2)	7	(2)
Sanskrit	7	(2)	7	(2)
Italian	10	(1)	10	(1)
Portuguese	10	(1)	10	(1)
Khmer	-	(-)	10	(1)

Note: * Number of Universities Offering the Language Course

Table 1 shows that English, French, and German tie up their popularity among students in nine to ten universities for the past three years but at present (1992), Japanese, and Chinese share the same rank in eight universitie. Malay, Pali and Sanskrit share the same rank in two universities. Three new languages: Italian, Portuguese and Khmer (Cambodian) share the same rank in one university. But, Khmer, as reported here, has been offered in only one university.

Looking at the development of the foreign language teaching and learning in Thai universities in the past few years, one can perceive trends of teaching and learning of some foreign language courses. For example, English which has been the most popular foreign language in Thai universities is offered as part of liberal education, as major-minor, and as an elective. Generally students at this level take general English in the first year and take English for academic purposes in the second and third years.

Other foriegn languages such as French, Japanese, German, Spanish, Italian, Chinese and Malay are offered in some universities. For example, the Department of Eastern Languages and the Department of Western Languages at Chulalongkorn University provide courses in these languages. Cultural and linguistic information is imparted together with language skills. In teaching Chinese, the Department of Eastern Languages teaches writing characters, literature, and skills in using Mandarin. Japanese instruction, however, is inclined to be more career oriented. Letter writing and translation skills are taught (Wongsotorn, 1981, p. 201).

Pali and Sanskrit which have been classified as classical languages are also offered in some universities. The Faculty of Arts and the Faculty of Archeology at Chulalongkorn University, for example, provide courses on language principles, etymology, literature, and translation. The teaching approach is traditional, mainly using the grammar-translation method. The testing method reflects the teaching approach. The instructional materials are mainly developed by professional staff (Wongsotorn, 1982, p. 202).

Some other European languages such as Spanish, Russian have been offered recently in many foreign language departments of Thai universities. Because of Thailand has opened new contacts with Arab countries in terms of trade the demands for exporting skilled labours have been increased tremendously and Arabic has become another new foreign language being offered in Thai universities. In the like manner as Arabic in the business and social world, German, French and Japanese are emerging as popular foreign languages for tourism with exotic Thailand, while Cambodian (Khmer) and Vietnamese are being considered by some universities because of their new attraction on the business venture resulting from social and political development in Southeast Asia.

Achievements in Foreign Language Learning

As seen from the trend of teaching and learning of foreign languages in some Thai universities that the number of students enrolled in many foreign language classes has increased, and new foreign languages are being offered during the past few years, but achievements of teaching and learning seem not to have made marked progress. Reports from ten universities reveal deficiency in oral language skills which include listening and speaking performance while the written language skills including reading and writing are only "favorably" improved. However, only in some universities, English, French, German, Chinese are marked "excellent" in the listening and speaking areas while the rest of the foreign languages offered are marked "favorable". Students perform better in the reading area. It is obviously shown that in one univesity Russian, Spanish and Pali are marked "excellent" in reading. The student writing performances as seen by their Department Heads are mainly "favorable". Only in one or two universities found the students' writing skills are excellent in English, French, Japanese, and Pali. Reports from all ten universities show "favorable" marks in both oral and written language skills for their students. However, these are only observations from the Foreign Language Department Heads. We must also look at the students' performance from their final examination.

Table 2 shows the Department Heads' comments on their students' foreign language learning achievements.

Table 2 The Foreign Language Department Heads' Comments on Their Students' Learning Achievement by Languages Offered

Languages/ Performance Level	Skills Areas								
	Listening and Speaking			Reading			Writing		
	A*	B*	C*	A*	B*	C*	A*	B*	C*
English	5	6	_	4	2	_	2	4	1
French	4	5	_	3	1	_	2	3	1
Chinese	1	5	_	2	3	_	_	3	3
Japanese	_	6	_	2	4	_	1	3	3
German	2	6	_	2	4	_	_	6	2
Russian	_	2	_	1	3	1	_	1	1
Malay	_	2	_	_	1	_	_	1	_
Spanish	_	2	_	1	2	_	_	2	_
Pali	_	1	1	1	4	1	1	2	2
Sanskrit	_	_	1	_	2	1	_	2	1
Italian	_	_	_	_	2	_	_	2	_
Portuguese	_	_	_	_	1	_	_	1	_
Khmer	_	1	_	_	_	_	_	_	_

Note * A- Excellent *B- Favorable *C- Weak

N - represents number of institutions reported

Results of the final examination in the first semester of the 1992 academic year also reveal the students' low proficiency in the oral language skills and unfavorable reading and writing skills. It seems that Thai students find writing the most difficult task in learning a foreign language. Table 3 shows results of the final examination in two universities.

Table 3 Numbers and Percentages of Students who Passed or Failed in each course for the final examination of the first semester of 1992 accdemic year

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University A

Language Course Offered/Per cent and Number of Students who Passed and Failed in Each Course Divided by Course Grades/Total Enrolment

(/- 1 count, X-5 counts), G-Good, P-Passing, F-Failure, TTN-Total enrolment

Integrated Skills			
EN 101	G	// 2 (630)	
	P	XXXXXXXXX 45 (16476)	
	F	XXXXXXXXXXX// 57 (19703)	TTN 100 (36809)
CN 101	G	XXXX 20 (28)	
	P	XXXXXXXXXXX 55 (77)	
	F	XXXXX 5 (35)	TTN 100 (140)
FR 101	G	XXXXXXXXXXXX/ 61 (146)	
	P	XXXXX 25 (59)	
	F	XX//// 14 (34)	TTN 100 (239)
GN 101	G	XXXXXXXXXXXX 60 (30)	
	P	XXXX//// 24 (12)	
	F	XXX/ 16 (8)	TTN 100 (50)
JN 101	G	X//// 9 (38)	
	P	X/// 8 (34)	
	F	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX//// 84 (371)	TTN 100 (44[illegible])
University B			
EN 101	A	0 (0)	
	B	XX/// 13 (74)	
	C	XXXXXXXXXXX/ 56 (318)	
	D	XXXXXX/ 31 (180)	TTN 100 (572)
	F		
JN 331	A	XXX/ 1 (11)	
	B	XXXXXXXX/ 41 (29)	
	C	XXXXXX 30 (21)	
	D	XX/// 13 (9)	
	F	0 (0)	TTN 100 (70)
Listening & Speaking Skills			
University B			
EN 403	A	XX//// 14 (3)	
	B	XXXXXXXXX / 46 (10)	
	C	XXXX/// 23 (5)	
	D	XX//// 14 (3)	
	F	X 5 (1)	TTN 100 (22)
JN 441	A	XX 10 (1)	
	B	X// 7 (7)	
	C	XXXX 20 (2)	
	D	0 (0)	
	F	0 (0)	TTN 100 (10

Table 3 Continued

Reading Skills			
University A			
EN 201	G	- 0.27 (38)	
	P	XXXXXXXXX/ 46 (6396)	
	F	XXXXXXXXXX//// 53.73 (7359)	TTN 100 (13793)
FR 301	G	/// 3 (1)	
	P	XX// 12 (5)	
	F	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX 85 (34)	TTN 100 (40)
JN 201	G	XXX// 17 (8)	
	P	XXX// 17 (8)	
	F	XXXXXXXXXXXXX/ 66 (31)	TTN 100 (47)
University B			
FR 331	A	X// 7 (2)	
	B	XXXXXX/// 33 (10)	
	C	XXXXXX 30 (9)	
	D	XXXXX 20 (6)	
	F	/// 3 (10)	TTN 100 (30)
Writing Skills			
University A			
EN 405	G	0(0)	
	P	XXXX 20 (276)	
	F	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX 80 (1137)	TTN 100 (1415)
FR 401	G	// 2 (1)	
	P	XXXXXX 30 (15)	
	F	XXXXXXXXX/// 48 (24)	TTN 100 (50)
GN 301	G	X/ 6 (1)	
	P	XXX/ 16 (3)	
	F	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXX/// 78 (14)	TTN 100 (18)
University B			
EN 205	A	/// 3 (13)	
	B	XX//// 14 (69)	
	C	XXXXXXXXXX/ 51 (261)	
	D	XXXXXX/ 31 (159)	
	F	X// 7 (1)	TTN 100 (509)
FR 332	A	0(0)	
	B	XX 10 (3)	
	C	XXXXXXXXX/ 46 (14)	
	D	XXX/ 26 (8)	
	F	XXX/ 16 (5)	TTN 100 (30)

Another example of the foreign language literacy is a group of 350 graduates from different universities who took an English test for the competition into the Graduate Programs at Sripatum University for the 1993 academic year. The applicants were given the reading and written test in English. Results of the composite tests on Reading

Comprehension, Summarizing, and Expanded Composition show a wide range of their literacy skills as shown in Table 4.

Table 4 Results of the English Test for the Competition into the MBA and MA (Mass Com) at Sripatum University, 1993.

Types of Test	Ranges	Means	SD	Grades						
(Composite)				G		P		F		Total
				N	%	N	%	N	%	N
Reading Comprehension (Summarizing) Expanded Composition	0 - 54	26	17	6	2	173	49	171	48	350

Note: G=Good (scores 51-60), P=Passing (scores 30-50), F=Failure (0 - 29)

The Impact of the Foreign Language Literacy on the Teaching and Learning Program

Results of a survey on the impact on the students' foreign language literacy on the teaching and learning programs in ten Thai universities reveal the needs for improvements as in the following:

1. The textbooks used in the course need to be revised for effective learning.
2. New teaching media need to be provided for effective teaching and learning.
3. Effective teaching methods should be implemented to challenge the students' interest in learning.
4. There is an increase of classrooms for some popular languages such as French and Japanese.
5. More extra-curricular activities outside of the classroom are needed to provide functional language experiences for students.

Based on the needs for improvements as summarized above, the Foreign Language Departments in ten universities made attempts to launch the projects for more effective foreign language programs as follows:

1. Special planning for more effective teaching and learning have been made.
2. New modern teaching and learning devices have been procured.
3. Recruitment of new teaching staff is being made.
4. New budgets for the operation of the foreign language programs are solicited from available sources.
5. Some institutions have tried to increase the links between the business sectors for job opportunities for students majoring in certain foreign languages.
6. More in-service trainings for the teaching staff and personnel are provided.
7. More research studies on the problems and difficulties of Thai students in learning a foreign language are to be conducted.
8. The teaching staff are encouraged to participate in the foreign language seminars and workshops organized by the professional groups or language associations.

Problems and Difficulties in the Operation of the Foreign Language Programs

Reports from eleven Heads of the Foreign Language Departments from five universities reveal problems and difficulties they encountered in the operation of the foreign language programs. They can be summarized as in the following:

1. Shortages of teaching staff can be seen in most of the universities. This situation leads to ineffective teaching and learning activities because of the large class size and inappropriate skill trainings. The lack of native speakers to teach in some language classes such as Japanese, yields unfavorable learning outcomes especially in the area of

oral language skills.

2. Low proficiency in all language skills for most of the students reflects inadequate basic language training prior to taking up courses in the universities. Insufficient class attendance of some students also limit their language skill training and it yields their low learning outcomes.

3. Insufficient amount of budget to operate the language programs put a limit on procuring new modern teaching and learning devices. The teaching staff are not able to have more participation in the seminars or conferences organized locally and abroad.

4. There is inadequate number of new modern teaching and learning devices. Students' language learning is not fully motivated and reinforced.

5. Most universities have installed a language laboratory for students to practice their oral language skills but they have limitations in interactive learning. In many universities the language service centers are not fully utilized by their students nor their teaching staff.

6. Most universities have not established formal links between the foreign language teaching departments and the organization using some foreign languages in their business transaction. The foreign language trainings, therefore, is not relevant to the actual needs of the job market.

7. There is no established policy on the teaching and learning of foreign languages at a national level. The impact of the foreign language teaching and learning in universities are not well perceived at a macro level. Therefore, an overall systematic planning to utilize the important role of foreign language trainings for social, economic and political development has not yet implemented.

Conclusion

Literacy in a foreign language has quietly developed in Thailand since the first contact of the Europeans in the sixteenth century. But, formal trainings of literacy skills has just begun a hundred years ago. That was the establishment of the Ministry of Education in 1892 and Chulalongkorn University, the first institution of higher learning, in

1917. Among a dozen foreign languages taught in schools and universities, English has become the most popular one since students can choose to learn from Grade 5 in the elementary school, on up to the university.

The aims and purposes of foreign language teaching at the university are for liberal education and for a future career. While many universities maintain the first aim with humanistic viewpoints the new trends are moving towards the latter one with utilitarian viewpoints. The low achievement of students in learning a foreign language including English has some impact on the teaching and learning programs. Modern techniques with effective teaching devices are needed. The best preparation for literacy learning is learning to talk and having many opportunities to talk (Clay, 1993). However, there should be a clear national policy on the foreign language teaching and to utilize its important roles in the national economic, social, and political development.

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Reading Achievement Of Students In Selected Secondary Schools In Malaysia

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Introduction

The primary purpose of this paper is to examine the reading achievement levels of students in selected secondary schools in Malaysia. The focus is on the relationship of reading achievement with state, urban-rural locality of the home, sex and ethnic group affiliation. It is hoped that the study will add to the general body of knowledge regarding the factors which distinguish students who obtain high and low reading scores as measured by a series of reading tests. Although we know that not all students can process the information in a piece of text or that they can process it in the same manner, we have to make a concerted effort to try and understand their specific reading strengths and weaknesses. Only then can we plan appropriate strategies, both instructional or otherwise, to ensure that they can develop and improve their reading skills. As has often been pointed out, academic success depends a great deal on the ability to read and comprehend well what is read. Without adequate reading ability, it is very difficult for any individual to develop to his maximum potential. It is not surprising, then, if many researchers are focusing their attention on various aspects of reading, including the needs and characteristics of the readers. On their part, Taylor (1978) and Hansen (1979) have focused their attention on the strategies employed by good and poor readers when processing informational input.

From the outset it has to be pointed out that one of the most compelling problems confronting Malaysian education is how to ensure that students are equipped with good reading skills. In the Malaysian context, there is a need for more experimental evidence on how students read, whether they can draw inferences from written material and whether they rely a great deal on prior or background knowledge when reading. There is evidence to show that educators and teachers in other parts of the world, including those in highly developed countries, are equally concerned with the same educational issue, i.e, whether students read and comprehend well what they read. In an interesting and thought provoking article, Iacocca (1989), concerned with workplace literacy said, "If you are an educator, you must haemorrage a little inside whenever you think of the wasted human potential and functional illiteracy rates that run about 30 percent in the country." Perhaps, it is the high illiteracy rate in the United States which has led Iacocca to stress the point that reading is really fundamental to everything else.

The Study

The sample in this investigation included 1,328 students at the Form Two level and at the point of study were following the KBSM curriculum (Integrated Secondary School Curriculum). The large random sample was deemed to be necessary so that the results could hold for the nation as a whole. The students were from the states of Johor, Kelantan, Sarawak, Selangor and the Federal Territory. This essentially means that the study is also an evaluation of the impact of the KBSM Bahasa Melayu syllabus on the reading ability of the students. It was anticipated that while the level of reading ability may vary enormously between the urban and rural samples, due to differential socio-economic status of the families, differences due to sex and ethnic group affiliation would be minimal.

The Bahasa Melayu syllabus, which is an integral part of the integrated curriculum, currently being implemented, encourages student-oriented teaching. It allows teachers to think of strategies to improve reading, through helping students find meaning in the text, through group discussion activities, etc. It must be pointed out that under the old syllabus teachers could also have tried to achieve the same objectives. The difference is that the new syllabus places special emphasis on those objectives.

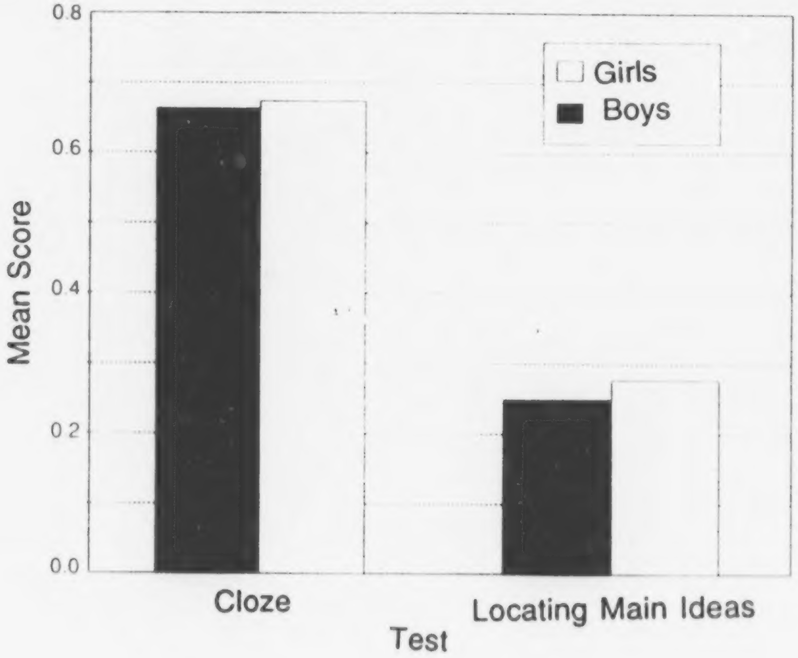
More recent research in the field of reading has shown that compared to the poor readers, the more skilled readers tend to interpret what they have read in the light of their own experiences. In short, they read to find meaning. To address these differences, the instruments used in this study, consisted of several researcher selected and constructed passages, all designed to assess various types of comprehension, (for example, literal, inferential, critical) and other areas such as vocabulary knowledge, as reflected in performance on a cloze test. It was felt that a series of tests would be a more valid and reliable measure of reading comprehension. The cloze procedure was used because it had shown itself to be a useful instrument for studying the relationship of language to reading comprehension. Because the list of words were given in random order at the beginning of the passage, responses were scored as correct only when they exactly matched the words deleted. Other than the cloze passage, subjects had to answer questions based on two other passages, one narrative and the other expository.

The comprehension questions on both passages were of three different types. The first, refered to as textually explicit required verbatim answers. The second and third were the textually implicit and scriptally implicit types. While the second type required students to make inferences, the third required them to read more critically, relating what they knew in terms of prior knowledge to the information in the text. As already mentioned, the cloze test was formulated in order to determine whether the students in the sample had adequate vocabulary knowledge. The other passages were included so that it would be possible to examine the role of prior or background knowledge in comprehension.

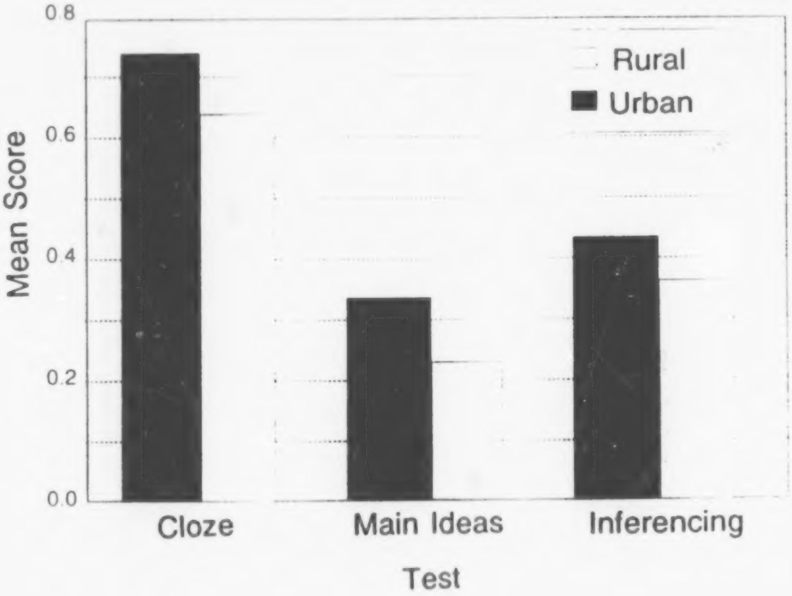
Results of the study indicate that there are striking differences in terms of reading ability between children in rural and urban areas in Malaysia. Since supplemental data obtained from the cumulative records of the school systems showed that compared to urban children, those from rural towns and districts came from lower socio-economic backgrounds, this study confirmed the findings of major studies such as that undertaken by Coleman and others (1966) that family background is of paramount importance in determining achievement levels. Anderson (1966) found that a number of interrelated factors contributed to low achievement among children from lower socio-economic milieu. These include poor parental control, poor economic conditions, low educational level of parents and lack of motivation and aspiration.

It was part of the aim of this paper to investigate the differences in reading ability between boys and girls. As depicted in Graph 1, the data clearly revealed that there are no significant differences in the number of correct responses on the cloze test, test for main ideas and test for inferencing skills between boys and girls in the sample. On the other hand, differences due to the locality of the home, which in the Malaysian context largely reflect family background factors such as economic and parental educational levels were far more likely to be a determinant of the reading achievement level. The pattern of reading performance was consistent for all the tests administered. For example, on the cloze test, the mean score of the urban students was 0.7427 compared to the mean score of 0.6491 for the rural students with t value = 4.82. Further analysis of the data revealed that when required to identify the main points in a passage, the mean score for the urban sample was 0.3385 while the mean score for the rural sample was 0.2277 with t value = 5.18. When the test required students to use inferencing skills, the mean score for urban students was 0.4312 compared to a mean score of 0.3666 for rural children. The t value was 3.67. Graph 2 shows the difference in mean score between urban and rural children on all three reading tests.

Graph 1: Mean Score on Cloze and Locating Main Ideas



Graph 2: Mean Score on Tests According to Locality



Graph 3: Mean Score of Urban and Rural Respondents According to Question Type

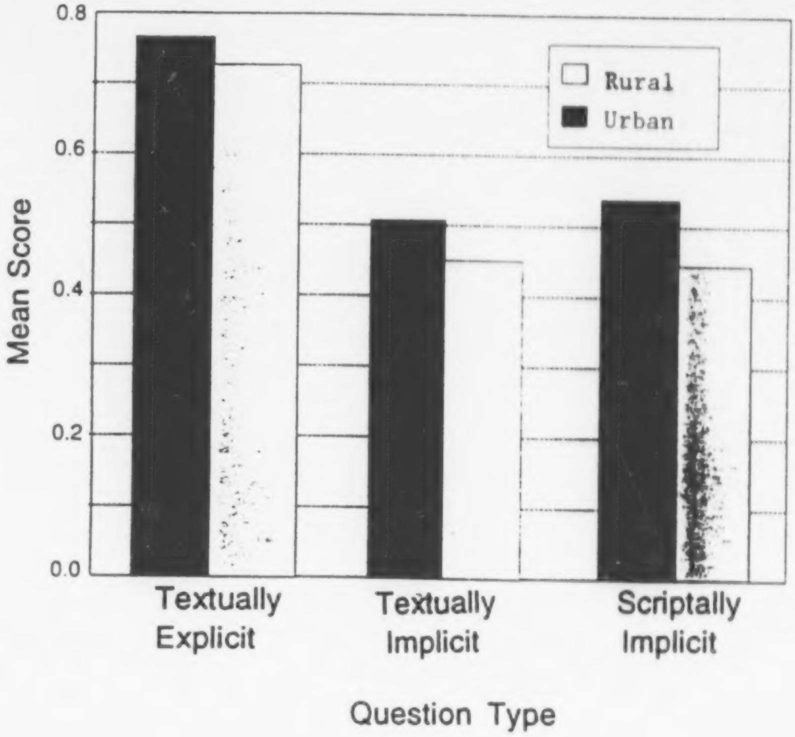


Table 3 shows the mean scores for rural and urban students according to type of question. It is interesting to note that while there is only a slight difference in performance between rural and urban children on textually explicit questions, the difference on textually implicit and scriptally implict questions is quite marked. This clearly shows that rural children tended to overly rely upon the text for meaning. They seemed to be less capable of utilizing their own knowlwdge structures. By contrast, the urban students tended to be less tied to the text in responding to questions.

Implications of the study

The finding that rural children in Malaysian schools perform poorly on all of the reading comprehension tests should be a cause of major concern. It is possible that a number of factors contributed to their poorer performance. One likely reason is that they are deprived of home enrichment factors such as encyclopedias, number of books present, magazine to which subscribed, etc. It is also possible that rural schools are poorly equipped, especially in terms of library facilities. Taken together, these factors could have led to a lower motivation to read.

In our efforts to find out more about the causes of poor reading ability among rural children, we have also to examine classroom instructional practices. Clearly we need new directions into how to help less skilled readers process information more effectively and efficiently. We need new insights into their attitudes to reading. We also need to know about teachers' teaching behaviour and their knowledge of the reading process itself. We have always to bear in mind that in our quest for a higher level of literacy and reading among our students, teachers are our crucial partners. The finding that compared to urban children, those from rural schools performed poorly when answering scriptally implicit questions clearly revealed that the latter needed help in broadening their learning experiences. We have to draw attention to teachers' role and strategies in helping poorer readers relate what they already know in terms of prior knowledge, to the information in the text. Perhaps, teachers could be encouraged to develop materials according to the particular needs and interests of their students.

Concerted efforts must focus on the continued professional development of teachers (both pre-service and in-service). In a recent article, Marie M. Clay (1993) stresses on the importance of acknowledging diversity resulting from differences in interests, cultural backgrounds, motivations and abilities. In a multilingual and multicultural society like Malaysia, it is critically important for teachers to take into account the effects of the cultural diversity in the classroom on teaching and learning. Teachers could begin to develop and utilize materials which are culture-based. Before doing so, however, they must be totally convinced of the need to supplement the textbook. There is ample evidence in this study that poor readers do not have a kowledge base sufficient for comprehending the passages. Bearing that in mind, teachers could begin to build upon the prior knowledge possessed by their students.

To be noted is that in the Malaysian school system, most teachers handle mixed ability classes. In such classes, it is very important for the teacher to identify the specific reading strengths and weaknesses of each pupil. Unfortunately, teachers often claim that they are not able to cater to the needs of different ability groups, less still to the needs of the individual child. In order to provide some guidance to the teachers, it is hoped that a part of our pre-service and in-service training courses will focus on how to identify individual reading strengths and weaknesses, thus creating a classroom environment which is conducive to the development of good reading skills. Both pre-service and in-service courses should also attempt to help teachers interpret, understand, assimilate and implement new ideas and thinking in current reading research. To state briefly, there appears to be a need for more innovative teaching of reading in the classrooms.

Reading is a complex activity. Fortunately, however, regardless of their age and ability, learners have a natural motivation to learn to read. As far as general reading improvement is concerned, it is time for us to think of long range planning goals. At the same time we need to always bear in mind that there are no clear cut answers to reading problems. In effect, the findings of this study substantiate what Malaysian educators have pointed out for years, i.e. rural children tend to perform poorly compared to their urban counterparts.

We certainly need to think of ways to increase the reading levels of Malaysian children, and of rural children in particular. We need specially trained teachers who could identify reading difficulties and provide remediation. Perhaps, it is time for more volunteer groups to work with rural children, in order that their reading skills can be improved. On their part, the volunteers must perceive the necessity of coming together and working together with parents, teachers, librarians and other professional groups.

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BEGINNING READING INSTRUCTION IN INDIA : AN APPRAISAL

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When India gained freedom in 1947, only about 16 percent of the population was literate. This was a major national problem, and it remains to be one till today. The problem of illiteracy is closely connected with the provision of education, especially at the primary level. If children cannot or do not go to School, they remain illiterate and come into the category of adult illiterates when they grow up. In a country like India, where a large portion of the adult population is illiterate, provision for adult education becomes as important as provision for primary education.

What is literacy? When we refer to literacy, whatever else we may be talking about, the 3 R's are surely included in it. Of the 3 R's, Reading is the first one and, it goes without saying, the most important. Reading lays the foundation for literacy; it is the basis of literacy. If one has learnt to read, what else does one need to become literate, and even educated?

'Beginning Reading Instruction' lays the foundation for reading. Its importance in the development of the reading skill can never be denied. 'Beginning Reading Instruction' is the term used to refer to the activities connected with the teaching of reading right when learners are beginning to read. It is generally used for children who are beginning to read. But when illiterate adults start reading, they also do need help or some kind of instruction. And as we have seen, teaching adults to read is as important as doing it with children. Therefore, in this paper the term 'Beginning Reading Instruction' will be used in the context of both children as well as adults.

The directive of Article 45 of the Indian Constitution had recommended that the State provide free and compulsory education for all children upto the age of fourteen years. This target, popularly known as the universalisation of primary education was to be achieved within ten years. Forty-three years after the Constitution came into force, we are still quite short of achieving this cherished goal. Many children do not have access to school education. Most of even those who enter school leave without completing their schooling. Wastage and stagnation continue to remain serious problems.

The following table shows the all India drop-out rate from grade I to grade VIII as on 30th September, 1986 (Fifth Educational Survey conducted by the National Council of Educational Research and Training):

Grade	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Enrolment (%age)	100	73.41	65.95	56.46	49.28	41.66	35.52	31.11
Drop out rate (%age)		26.59	34.05	35.54	50.72	58.34	64.48	68.89

In the Eighth Five Year Plan the drop-out rate has been shown as 46% and 60% respectively at the grade - V and grade - VII Stages.

Many factors may be contributing to this problem. Most researches on drop-outs point towards the economic perspective or that of parental attitudes. But where does the bull's eye of the problem lie? What does the child need and want? What are the child's expectations from the school? The crux of the problem is that the child needs to make sense of the world and learn to solve real life problems. The child expects to be able to touch, manipulate and examine real things. All this, can be attained, the child has been told, through the three R's--Reading being the first one of them. But when the child enters grade I, he/she realises the futility of it all. He/She is not initiated into reading in such a manner that it enables him/her to make sense of the world and solve real life problems. To the extent reading is taught in a manner in which it could become a fulfiling device for the child, the wastage in our enormous efforts to impart education shall be minimised.

The importance of reading in the overall learning and education of the child can never be over emphasised. And if, reading is not approached as it should be, our children would either not learn to read at all, or learn it enough only to pass school but stop at that. The ral purpose of Reading - which is to give them a tool to use throughout their lives in varied situations, as a means to make sense of the world, to seek answers - would be lost. Therefore, it is of utmost importance that reading be tackled in an appropriate manner.

RELATED STUDIES

The extent and contours of the deficiency in reading skill were revealed as a result of India's participation in the studies conducted in 1969-71 by the International Association for Evaluation of Educational Achievement Fourteen countries participated in the Study which attempted to measure achievement in reading comprehension in the mother tongue. In the case of India, Hindi[1] was the chosen language. Ten year olds (class IV - V) and fourteen year olds (class VIII - IX) from six Hindi speaking states formed the sample for this Study. In all 538 responses were collected, making it the largest Study, till then, conducted in India in the area of reading achievement of school children. In the two tests - one for reading comprehension and the other for word knowledge - the achievements of Indian children were the lowest among the fourteen participating countries.

In 1973, an international study was conducted by R.L. Thorndike to compare Reading Comprehension education in fifteen countries, including India. The results were revealing as well as alarming for us. Indian students fared very badly in the study. They were proved to be the poorest in all respects of reading comprehension among the 15 countries, except one.

It has been nearly twenty years since the above mentioned study was conducted. But the situation has hardly changed. There has not been any significant move during all these years to improve it.

Another jolt came from a Study conducted in 1976 in several states in India wherein it was found at the end of class I, 55 percent of the children could not read (recognise) a single word, and 30 percent of the children at the end of class II could not read a sentence like "पिताजी खाना खा रहे हैं" (Father is eating his food). The worst part of this study was that the teachers were not even aware of the fact. According to them the children had learnt to read because they could read aloud the entire book which was used for teaching Hindi. The young ones had committed to memory all the words written on each page and a clue easily available in the pictorials was enough for them to reproduce the whole thing without any prompting. A clever boy offered to read with his book closed. But when the words were presented out of the same letters the children could not recognise them.

The fact that many yound children are not equipped with basic reading skills in the mother-tongue poses a grave handicap to the acquisition of knowledge in other content areas of the school curriculum. Not only does it mask talent in other curricular areas, but it also effectively prevents children, especially from disadvantaged backgrounds, from performing well in written examinations. One example is provided by V.G. Kulkarni, who maintains that the field experiences of the Homi Bhabha Centre for Science Education suggests that the single most important factor which prevents talent from manifesting itself is "linguistic deprivation". (A simple maths problem could not be done because the pupils did not understand the meaning of the term "Deccan Queen" the name of a train.)

What do these results indicate? Don't they point towards a serious anomaly in the way reading is approached in our schools? We will have to sit back and seriously think about what is wrong in the way we teach reading in general, and Beginning Reading Instruction in particular.

Beginning Reading Instruction

The common practices in BRI prevalent in primary schools of India take a diagonally opposite direction to what scientific understanding about the reading process suggests. Generally, the method followed for teaching of reading in class I is close to what contemporary reading specialists would refer to as the traditional approach, characterized by the treatment of text as a complex package containing a variety of information meant to be learnt for its own sake.

Children are made to commit to rote memory the names of different letters and develop the ability to recognise them separately and as part of a word. Only when this familiarity with the alphabets is perceivable in them, these children are deemed fit to proceed further and apply this ability to sentences representing meaningful statements.

In this approach, reading is treated as an end product (not as a meaningful process-experience) for which the child has to wait for a long time, wherein his/her desire to derive meaning from what he/she reads is thwarted.

It is because of this approach to BRI that we find a high drop-out rate in our elementary schools. In fact nearly 60% of those enrolled in class I fail to reach class VIII.

There are connected problems of wastage and stagnation. If a child who has "successfully" completed his/her primary education, is not able to read and use the abilities he/she is supposed to have learnt, what else is it but wastage of efforts. Further, there is not much good literature available for children, that would stimulate their interest and prod them on to read, specially in our vernacular languages. Thus children are unable to practise what they have learnt; disuse of skills leads to 'unlearning' or at least stagnation there being no further growth. As a result, a vast majority of our children, who have been certified as literate having undergone a minimum stipulated period of education, are really illiterate or become illiterate after a few years.

Newman provides a picture of how reading is tackled in our schools for the beginners.

"The third grade returns to its place against the well. Sita calls the first grade for their basic reading lesson and their first class of the day. A labourer stands listening for a few minutes, three feet from Sita. She teaches these children very patiently, "a(अ), aa(आ), i(इ), ii(ई), u(उ), uu(ऊ), etc., (Hindi alphabets- vowel sounds) taking the hand of each one and pointing his finger to each letter, saying the sound simultaneously. She says, "This letter is like a turtle. That's the one with a stick". Every time she reads a letter or a group of letters, all the children repeat after her. Only one of the pupils looks at his book as he repeats, the rest look straight ahead or just gaze about, blindly repeating."

Kumar discusses the problem in detail.

"Learning basic skills, such as reading, involves the translation of several discrete kinds of knowledge into a gestalt of readily available responses. Learning how to read requires the child to apply his/her knowledge of the world, people, and language to construct a highly dynamic system of decoding graphic signs. Recent research in the pedagogy of reading tells us that the success of reading instruction depends on the encouragement given to children to use their prior knowledge of language (in its oral form) and the world to decode printed texts meaningfully. In the light of this research, the alphabet-centred instruction given in Indian primary schools, and the lack of incentives for children to use their hypothesis-forming ability, discourage children's search for meaning. Repeated failure to make sense of what they are reading damages the self-concept of many children, leading them to drop out of school. Of the others who do learn to read, many become mechanical readers - in the sense that they can scan a printed page but cannot associate the text with their own experiences. Only if reading were taught in a manner in which it could be learnt would the wastage in our enormous efforts to impart primary education be minimised. At present, only the exceptionally persistent or motivated children are able to relate to the text, that is, to read in a meaningful way."

Case Study

In the fore-going discussion, we have constructed ideas about Beginning Reading Instruction in India. These ideas had been formulated in my mind after due consideration of my experiences and observations having undergone the system as a student and then as a teacher as well as a teacher educator. The results of studies quoted above, as also many other analyses, that I have come across, all helped me to reinforce it.

To concretise further these ideas and to attempt an appraisal of Beginning Reading Instruction, a case study of a school was conducted by me. For this I chose a school situated on the outskirts (just across the border) of Delhi. It is located in a small town called Bahadurgarh, a part of the state of Haryana. The school is an English medium public school, managed by the largest non-governmental Educational Trust - D.A.V. (Dayanand Anglo Vedic) College Managing Committee. It is one of the nearly five hundred educational institutions run by the D.A.V. all over the country.

Several reasons prompted me to choose this school for a case study. First of all, the location. The school is situated close to a metropolitan city, Delhi. But it caters to a mixed population from a semi-urban as well as rural background. Bahadurgarh is a small industrial town with about eight villages around it. Thus the school gave me access to children of mixed background - culturally as well as economically. It was the closest I could get to a representative group of the multicultural Indian society. Haryana (where the school is situated) is an educationally backward state ranking twenty first in literacy rate among the twenty five states and seven union territories that India is divided into. The drop-out rate in this state is about forty seven percent after class XII.

Secondly, the accessibility. Being stationed in Delhi, I had easy access to the school for the case-study, which was a personal study, not funded by any governmental or non-governmental agency. Moreover, the school was a familiar one, as I have been going there for other academic tasks, too. The Principal and teachers were very cooperative. In fact, the case study was conducted by the Principal of the school and myself jointly.

What we intended to study was the over-all educational situation of the school vis-a-vis the reading skill, with emphasis on Beginning Reading Instruction.[2]

The school provides quality education being an English medium public school. Two languages - English and Hindi are taught right from the beginning. The overall educational situation in terms of examination results is good. The school has produced cent percent results, with distinctions, at the Secondary (Xth standard) Board exam, which is a public exam at the All-India level. But, as is true of education in India all over, we find that the exam results are no true indication of real learning - meaningful and helpful in life outside the school.

The children in all grades have not developed healthy reading habits upto the desired level. Reading for them means reading the text books only, and that too for the purpose of passing the exams or doing well in them.

The study involved observation as well as interaction with the teachers and students. It was conducted more as a participant rather than as an impersonal observer.

Mainly the reading classes of the beginners (grades I and II) were seen, though they were not the only ones observed. Lessons of the higher grades were also seen to get an idea about the impact of Beginning Reading Instruction.

In the first few classes, it was seen that the teachers tended to approach reading sessions in the conventional alphabet-centred manner. For example in a typical Beginning Hindi class, the teacher merely asked the pupils to repeat after her -

and so on. This is merely familiarising the pupils with the Hindi alphabet along with a word beginning with each letter. After an intervention when we talked to the teachers concerned, in an informal but instructive chat, we were able to bring about slight changes in these approaches.

The same teacher, for example, later started singing rhymes, telling them stories and rendered the whole reading process more interesting - even though it was still not totally meaningful for the children. In any case, situational teaching is better than the dry 'alphabetisation' process, which becomes mundane and uninteresting to a very high level.

After some intervention, towards the end of our study, we observed a lesson that was very interesting. The teacher was teaching a story called "The thirsty crow". She started by asking them if they had seen a crow. A few students - five or six - answered in the affirmative. The others just stared at her. Obviously they did not know the word. She repeated the word again, but there was still no response. Ordinarily, she would have resorted to the easy way out - giving the Hindi equivalent. But this time she did not. We ∠ had had discussed the subject at length. We∠tried to convince her that she should not resort to the easy way out. Rather the lessons should be made more interesting and meaningful by using the first hand experiences and knowledge of the children. So instead, she uttered the sound of the crow 'Kayan, Kayan, Kayan'. Now all of them responded. The crow is a well known bird in India. It is a regular visitor in villages and towns and is even given food on certain occassions. The students knew the crow in their vernacular but not in the English language. Similarly when the teacher asked them if they had seen a pitcher, they gave blank expressions. But when she showed them the picture of the pitcher, they were able to recognise. There were other words like this which needed explanation. When she came to the word 'thirsty', it posed some problem. She tried to explain it to them by connecting it with a 'dry throat' or 'what one feels when one wants to drink water'. Ultimately she gave the Hindi equivalent also. Now she did try to explain the word in a variety of ways and in the end only she translated. This is not undesirable as it came as a part of the whole communication. She had to exercise a bit on other words like 'quench' and 'pebbles'. On the whole the reading lesson turned out to be more meaningful, more communicative. And it was evident that the children were more involved, more interested and the learning was much better.

There was another class in which a lesson about kite flying was being read. The teacher used her whole repertoire in teaching the English language. What did she not do to make reading interesting - she acted, she mimed, she used a lot of colours, drawings, materials e.g. box, sand, played with things. She used models, graphs, anything that would do to put life in the reading. She succeeded in eliciting and further reinforcing particular language items. The students were motivated. They started moving over the pages. It seemed that they could feel the words, and pictures coming alive. The sound of the turning of the pages could be heard. It could be felt that the children were visualizing in their minds and hearts the meaning and scope of each word. Atleast one child gave the feeling that his world had come alive with the word kite. The way he was looking at the picture of the boy with the kite, I felt the string in his hand and the kite in the sky. So great seemed his excitement. Can one imagine the impact of such reading and learning on the mind of the child. But alas! the child was paralysed on his left. But did it diminish the imagination from the boy's mind? It didn't seem so.

Observation (evidence) from the case study suggests that children inevitably mobilise background knowledge if it is at all possible for them to do so. This act is not essentially a matter of conscious effort or of being encouraged to do so, but rather a matter of not being able to do otherwise. For example, the children spontaneously brought what they knew in identifying and interpreting the story of 'The Thirsty Crow'. They were able to tell many stories connected with the crow. A few children also related how the crow that came to their house and picked up bits and pieces of their food and ran off to the tree. When the teacher tried to identify the crow with the sound it utters, one child referred to a popular superstition in India (which many people, especially the rural folk believe even today) that if a crow sits on your house top and crows, you should expect some guest coming to your house that day.

It is evident that the children acquire a respectable store of knowledge about the world by the time they enter school. The children especially in the rural and semi-urban areas understand a great deal about the natural and physical environment, for example animals, birds, weather, food, clothing, buildings. They also understand customs and interdependent activities of the human community. They also grasp the logic of similar and contrasting relationships as well as the humour of incongruity.

The moment the children read, they are able to identify certain words, certain sounds, anticipate the text and are able to relate certain incidents in meaningful ways.

ADULT EDUCATION

The significance of universal literacy as an instrument of galvanising and mobilising the people, arousing community consciousness and participation to effect social change was realised and highlighted by the national leaders of India. Gandhi described mass illiteracy as "India's sin and shame" and wanted it to be eradicated. There has been several significant programmes launched towards this end after independence. In 1988, a big resolve to eradicate adult illiteracy in a time bound manner was taken with the launching of National Literacy Mission (NLM). The goal of NLM was to impart functional literacy to 80 million illiterates in 15-35 age group by 1995.

Kerala became the first state to achieve total literacy in April, 1991. The 1991 census has revealed that India is on the road towards total literacy, though the goal is still far away. But at least we have crossed the 50% mark in literacy. This is the first time that the number of literates is more than the number of illiterates.(3)

But when we look at the quality of the literacy programme, it will not be much to rejoice about. A look at the literacy kit and the primers used for the purpose will suffice. For example, the primer used in Delhi, the Capital, which has been prepared by the State Resource Centre at Delhi, entitled 'मेरी किताब' (My Book) Part I. It starts, as it is expected, with the alphabets of Hindi- अ, आ, इ, ई, उ and so on. The picture of an object whose name starts with the letter is given with it. Short sentences start on page number Eighteen. But the sentences are not at all communicative. They are meant to help the learners recognise alphabets and nothing more.

Observing an adult literacy class will yield the same results as in the case of primary classes. The effort is mainly directed towards alphabetisation, and not much more.

As a result, neo-literates, who have been declared as literates, lapse back into illiteracy and are unable to really read anything. This is also because there is hardly and appropriate literature for neo-literates available.

Kerala has the highest literacy rate as well as the highest retention rate at the primary stage. One important reason for this achievement has been the strong traditional library movement, in that State.

It is with this very idea in mind that the scheme of "Jana Shikshan Nilayam" was launched along with the NLM. This scheme was meant to develop literature for neo-literates and to create centres of learning, for post literacy and continuing education, including libraries for the adult neo-literates. A lot of work in this direction needs to be undertaken.

CONCLUSION

We can broadly distinguish between two types of education systems. In the first type, the teacher has the freedom to decide what materials to use for developing a lesson. She is trained and expected to prepare her own curricular plan and mode of assessment. She has authority over what happens in the classroom, in what order, at what pace and with the help of what resources - printed or otherwise. The second type of education system ties the teacher to the prescribed textbook. She is given no choice in the organisation of curriculum,pacing and the mode of final assessment. Text books are prescribed for each subject, and the teacher is expected to teach it, which really means - elucidate it, lesson by lesson in that order. She must ensure that all the lessons are finished and preferably rehearsed, before the end of the school year, and that children are able to write answers to questions based on any lesson in the text book without seeing it, for this is what they will have to do in the examination when they face one.

The Indian education system is of the second type. As far as the structuring of knowledge is concerned, the system offers a rather limited space within which the school teacher must move. Over the pacing and ordering of knowledge, and over its associations with certain texts, the teacher has very little autonomy. Text books hold a central place in the system.

The term 'text book culture' encapsulates certain common features of Indian school padagogy which are as follows :

1. Teaching in all subjects is based on the text book prescribed by State authorities.
2. The teacher has no freedom to choose what to teach. She must complete the prescribed text book.
3. Resources other than the text book are not available in the majority of Schools and where they are available they are seldom used. Fear of damage to such resources (e.g. play or science equipments), and the poor chances of repair or replacement discourage the teacher from using them.
4. Assessment during each year and examinations are based on the text book.

If one of the fundamental objectives of elementary education is to provide for a proper foundation in various curricular areas for those who continue with higher levels of education, then clearly most of our elementary Schools are not adequate to this task. Most serious of all are the reading deficiencies which not only mask existing abilities but also effectively inhibit latent talents to develop in other subject areas.

Moreover the lack of mastery of basic skills at the elementary stage of instruction has mutually interacted with the examination system to have an adverse impact not on on what is learnt, but also on how it is taught. Given the fact that performance in examinations in India has assumed the de facto status of being the be-all and end-all of learing and teaching, a vicious circle begins to operate. For the lack of fundamental skills and understanding at the elementary level ensures that students in secondary schools and colleges demand, receive and are content with dictated lecture notes, and use simplified reading materials like "Bazaar (market) Guides" exclusively geared to examination. This reinforces the dominant rote methods of learning and teaching characteristic of almost the entire spectrum of our formal institutions of education. As a result nothing is done to rectify the basic definiencies in the cognitive skills acquired in our elementary schools.

What then is the future perspective? There cannot be a break except through a complete breaking down of the present structure. Whether it is the employment market, the prestigious institutions of higher education and research, the highly priced administrative services, the paying professions of law and medicine, the executive jobs in public and private sector undertakings,in industrial and business administrations and management, scientific and industrial research institutions and banks - all place great value on knowledge. Knowledge is connected with not only money and status but also with personal development. This knowledge will come in through reading. Therefore, the reading skill assumes great importance. And the foundation for it is laid by "Beginning Reaing Instruction ". So it is BRI which has to be strengthened and made meaningful.

There is a great need not only to train our reading teachers in the right direction but also to motivate them to approach reading in an approapriate manner. In this connection it should be mentioned that we in India will have to lay stress on reaing instruction and so have 'reading specialists' and separate reading teachers as they have in many countries of the West and other parts of the World. Otherwise the onslaught of the electronic media will not allow the print media (and so reading) to grow. Our children will lose their mental capacities and remain passive viewers of the 'idiot box'.

Further we need to produce more appropriate and meaningful children's literature, especially in our vernaculars, at least in the major eighteen languages that are used in India.

In a sense nay in all senses, reading is a process of learning to enlarge the horizons of knowledge, to stabilise qualities like patience, perserverance and concentration and to understand the people and society in a better way. Thus real reading creates social awakenting and awareness among the individuals and the society. It helps them to understand life and works of great people, varying cultures and civilisations and different kinds of people on earth which will stand in good stead as examples in their life. Therefore, involvement in reading is a process of learning for social change and development and as such reading should be a life long process for learning.

NOTES

1. India has as many as 1652 mother tongues. 18 of them are major languages, which are listed in the 8th schedule of the constitution. Nearly 50 percent people speak Hindi.

2. The study was conducted by Principal Anita Devraj and myself for enriching this paper. It has yielded interesting data and results. Unfortunately, it is not possible to present a detailed report here.

3. Literacy rate 52.11 per cent.

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LITERACY INSTRUCTION IN SOME PHILIPPINE SCHOOLS

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Some Philippine schools have come to recognize the importance of beginning literacy instruction. The Ateneo de Manila University, through its Department of Education and the Ateneo Teacher Center, has underscored the need for the training of administrators, teachers and owners of schools for literacy instruction in accordance with the literacy thrust started by the UNESCO in 1990.

To answer this need for training, the Ateneo de Manila University Teacher Center designed a module for a seminar-workshop on Beginning Literacy and has offered it as one of the requirements for a graduate program in Reading Education and also as one of the non-degree (re)training seminars for educators and teachers as well as administrators and supervisors of schools. The important issues and points are hereby summarized and case studies are enumerated.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of the module is based on emergent literacy in children (Teale and Sulzby, 1989). Young children as literacy learners have shown the following:

1. For almost all children in literate societies, **learning to read and write begins very early in life**. Home environment plays an important role in the development of literacy skills.

2. **Functions of literacy are an integral part of the learning process** that is taking place. Each activity/word is processed by the learner.

3. Reading and writing develop **concurrently and interrelatedly** in young children. Children, as soon as they are able to hold writing instruments, create their own text.

4.Young children learn through **active engagement, constructing their understanding** of how written language works. The read by reading, write by writing.

The above truths have led to the following basic principles of Literacy Instruction:

1. Legitimate literacy learning occurs during the early years. The question of when to start reading and writing instruction therefore becomes absurd.

2. Methods of teaching reading and writing in early childhood programs must be developmentally appropriate.

3. Early childhood literacy programs must adopt at its foundation functional, meaningful activities that involve reading and writing in a variety of ways.

4. The curriculum must set high priority on getting children actively involved in literacy; they need opportunities to daily experiment with reading and writing.

5. Learning should not be confused with teaching. Each teacher should understand each child's emergent literacy abilities and strategies. The focus should be on teaching CHILDREN to read and write.

Types of Learners

The focal point of beginning literacy is the learner. That there are different types of learners and different learning styles have to be recognized (Fagella and Horowitz, 1990).

Generally accepted is the differing intellectual capacities and forms of intelligence of learners. Other factors also have been identified and the various types of learners have been distinguished with the accompanying characteristics; materials and activities which facilitate learning for them have also been listed.

1. The Linguistic Learner loves to read books, write, tell stories; has good memory for names, places, dates & trivia information. He/She excels in social studies activities involving dates; enjoys writing reports and essays. Materials to be used in lessons are: word-making tools, e.g. typewriter, word processor, tape recorder, alphabet stamps, books, records, book-tape sets, periodicals. Activities should include: story-telling, oral reading, creative writing, audio-taping, written and oral direction games, joke-telling. Special outings should be: trips to the library, bookstore, newspaper office; prose or poetry reading and talk with author.

2. The Logical-Mathematical Learner excels in math, has strong problem-solving and reasoning skills; asks questions in a logical manner; enjoys breaking codes, solving mysteries, writing word problems or coded riddles for other children to solve. Materials to be used are: collections of objects to sort; items to explore, e.g. old wind-up clocks, telephones, kitchen gadgets, magnets, magnifiers, games which encourage deductive thinking. Activities should include: experimenting, exploring, categorizing, classifying, working with numbers, questioning. Special Outings should be: visit museums, science and computer fairs, introduce to people in math, computer and technical world.

3. The Spatial Learner needs mental or physical pictures to best understand new information; does well with maps, charts, diagrams; likes mazes, puzzles; has good imagination; can design, draw and create things; daydreams; can create vivid mental pictures of stories. Materials to be used are: lots of visuals, maps, charts, illustrations, films, slides, photographs; mazes, puzzles, construction toys. Activities should include: organizing information, mapmaking, chart construction, media presentation; drawing painting projects. Special Outings should be: trip to art museums, planetarium, visit crafts people, architects, artists of all kinds.

4. The Musical Learner responds to music, remembers melodies, notices pitch and rhythym; aware of surrounding sounds, e.g. ticking of watch, singing of bird. Materials to be used are: musical instruments, computerized sound systems, percussion objects, records, tapes, compact discs, and the like. Activities should include: music activities, rhythym exercises; learning comes easier if things are set to music or to a beat; gain information through ballads and other song lyrics. Special Outings should be: visit music ot instrument stores, meet musicians and songwriters, attend concerts, recitals, operas, musicals.

5. The Bodily-Kinesthetic Learner is good at physical activities, has a tendency to move around, touch things, and gestures. Materials to be used are: hands-on craft materials, e.g. wood, clay, fabric, yarns, manipulatives like blocks; swings, ladders, slides, riding toys and other gym equipment.

Activities should include: physical skills, both fine and motor; craft activities and drawing; dance, drama, movement. Special Outings should include: attend sporting and dance events and participate in programs which encourage physical movement; talks with dancers, sports personalities, craftspeople.

6. The Interpersonal Learners has strong leadership skills; understands people and is sociable; skilled at organizing, communicating, mediating, negotiating. Materials to be used are: people, the most important resource; arrange charis, desks to encourage discussion; have tape machines available to record interviews and other discourse. Activities should include: the ultimate group worker, this child often needs to talk or teach others in order to learn. Discussions, interviews, debates, verbal problem-solving session; sharing and cooperation. Special Outings should include: social and cultural events; meet newscasters, politicians, actors, salespeople and others who communicate directly with people.

7. The Intrapersonal Learner has a strong sense of self; confident, a bit of a dreamer, often prefers working alone; good instincts about strengths and abilities; follows through on interests and goals, asking for help as needed. Materials should be: space for solitude; books, films about people who have "done their own thing"; games and suitable collections. Activities should include: individualized activities, e.g. research projects, cumulative writing projects; time for special interests such as writing poetry, putting together a collection, creating artwork, also for thinking. Special Outings should include: quiet

walks, encouranging thinking, meditating; meeting with people who have pursued unusual goals.

Learning Styles

Learners are also known to be affected by various elements, namely: (Dunn and Dunn, 1978)

1. **Environmental elements** - Sound, light, temperature and design
2. **Structure** - expectations, objectives or goal, methods of arriving at goals
3. **Sociological elements** - learning alone, with others, or in a variety of ways, including media
4. **Physical elements** - perceptual strengths - auditory, visual, tactual, kinesthetic learners; intake when studying or concentrating, like eating, chewing, drinking, biting, licking, or some way to ingest while they are engaged in new or difficult cognitive efforts; time of day or night energy levels for learning; mobility which signals loss or no interest, lose of concentration, difficulty of learning;
5. **Psychological elements** - global/analytic; hemispheric preference in brain functions; impulsiveness vs reflectivity.

Materials and Activities

Different learners with different learning types and styles need a variety of learning materials and activities, such as:

1. Storybook Reading - Children should interact with books. Two dimensions are: daily reading aloud to children; and providing opportunities for children to independently "read" books.

Books should surround the children at home and in school. Parents show the importance of books in beginning literacy by taking time to read aloud to the child and to answer his/her questions. Motherese has a role at this stage since it expresses the child's feelings, ideas and at times values.

In school, book corners in the classroom serve as "little" libraries where children can experience and interact with books. A regular library period strengthens attitude towards literacy; children need to explore the library and its book collection.

2. Other Opportunities to Read - Environmental print, such as labels, signs, charts, "morning message," "news" can be used to organize the classroom environment and provide written language experiences. These are ways by which children gain a wide understanding of the purposes and processes of reading.

Out-of-class activities, such as trips to the canteen, to the library, to the infirmary, to the playground or just scouting around the school grounds become literacy lessons. The teacher gives motive questions before the "trip" and spends some time in making the students share their experiences and interacting with each other. These activities can lead to the constructing of children's text or "big books" which can be readily understood because they express the children's experiences.

3. Response to Texts - A variety of response, or extension, activities can complement and enhance the effects of group storybook reading. These are: art, drama, cooking, eating (tasting the stone soup), experimenting as in expository books. While the practice of culminating activities have given rise to related works, these should not be postponed to the end of the schoolyear but they should find their way to the tri-weekly or even the bi-weekly plan.

4. Writing - Composing and spelling can be done at a writing center in the classroom where children can write with the use of chalkboard, magnetic board, crayons, pen, typewriter, etc. The teacher should find time to read all texts of the children and share them with the class (which could serve as incentives to the shy ones).

5. Literacy and play - Fill children's play with reading and writing. Use sociodramatic play which makes use of children adopting roles and acting out a situation.

Literacy programs especially for young learners should consider all the above points. The program design could pinpoint a particular type of learner and provide additional materials and activities which could encompass also other types of learners. This would mean "customizing" literacy programs according to the type of learners and their learning styles. Program designing becomes a cooperative venture among various people both in school and in the home. Below are examples of Literacy Programs which have been designed to suit the needs of specific learners.

Models for Learner-Oriented Literacy Programs

1. **Metacognitive Program** - The program makes use of prior knowledge, sharing of that knowledge through linguistic or extra-linguistic means. It also uses learner participation in all the aspects of learning. Subject matter can be taken from any and all of the subject areas in the school curriculum. The procedure is:

1.1. Brainstorm on the topic/story/selection for the day. For a small class, this could be a whole class activity. The learners are asked to: tell or act out what they know of the topic (good for the linguistic and bodily-kinesthetic learner). Each one is asked to say how he/she came to know the information (logical-mathematical learner). The teacher writes the words on the board as they are stated by each of the learners. For the actions, the teacher draws their representations on the board. Each contributor identifies with the words/drawings placed on the board. An alternative is for a number of pictures related to the topic/story/selection could be scattered on the chalk-ledge for selection by the students (linguistic and spatial learners).

1.2. Work out the relationships among and between the words or pictures, organize them into a table or a cluster and elicit the categories for the classification (spatial learner). For words which are not familiar to some students, ask if others know the meanings (intra- and inter-personal learners).

1.3. Read the title and sub-titles (linguistic learner) aloud; think of questions which could be answered by the selection; the teacher writes them on the board; directed reading follows. If there are questions with regard to difficult words, students are encouraged to ask (inter-personal and intra-personal learners). This reading aloud can be by section of the text or of the whole piece, depending on the length of the material and the level of the students.

1.4. After reading, the students are given some time for their reactions to the selection; then they check the questions brought up before reading; and raise other questions which could have arisen while reading or in connection with other questions earlier raised. The questions are thus asked by the students and they themselves or their classmates answer them (intra-and inter-personal learners).

1.5. Reinforcing and follow-up activities include the following:

- (linguistic learners) - Tell the class how you like the main character or other characters. Retell the story; change the ending; select someone you know who is like the main character.
- (spatial) - Using picture strip or a diagram, show all the actions in the order in which they happened; draw the actions you like best or those which affected the main character or other characters in the story.
- (logical-mathematical) - Show the cause-effect, problem-solution relationships of the events in the plot by the learner asking the question: WHY/WHY NOT.
- (musical) - Listen to a song or rhyme and relate it to the character or selection read.
- (spatial) - Draw a map to show how the character worked his way through the selection. Explain the map.
- (bodily-kinesthetic) - Act out a portion of the selection; select a corner of the classroom and gather materials which you think the character would like to have.

Everyone is then asked to choose a book from the library corner or the school library. For assignment, the children are asked to tell the story to their parents and brothers/sisters and ask for their comments. These should report on them the next day.

2. Language Experience Program - This program utilizes daily normal activities as learning situations and prior knowledge. Activities in daily life become literacy lessons. The procedure is as follows:

2.1. The teacher brings the students to the playground/ canteen/infirmary. The teacher with the students identifies each item found at the place and asks the students for the action done with each item. In each place, one of the workers, could tell the children what he/she does and entertain questions.

2.2. At the playground, each student chooses a play activity and spends some time doing it. At the canteen, each one looks for something he would like to eat. At the infirmary, each one looks at the equipment and materials and names each one or asks for the names from the nurse/infirmarian.

2.3. When the class returns to the classroom, the teacher asks each one to relate what he/she did and writes the "story" on a big sheet of paper and this becomes the child's "big book." Each student will then have a story to read and relate. (Words will not be difficult because they are from them.)

2.4. Activities for different types of learners include:

- linguistic learner: Share your story with a classmate and listen to your classmate when it is his/her turn.
- logical-mathematical learner: Think of "what if..." questions and try to answer each one. An example is: What if the swing had wings. What could it do? Why? Where could you go?
- bodily-kinesthetic learner: Out of paper or cardboard, make other toys for the playground, other instruments for the infirmary, other goods for the canteen.
- musical learner: Change the words of a song you know to sing about the actions you did at the playground, the things you found at the canteen and the infirmary.

- spatial learner: Make a picture strip of actions you did or materials in the place you visited and show how each one is related to the rest.

The shared activities are good for the inter-personal learners; the intra-personal learner should be asked to draw a new plaything/goods/instrument he/she would like to get for the playground/canteen/infirmary.

3. Whole Language Program - This program utilizes all the materials and activities ordinarily experienced by the children. Literacy skills are used for the situations. The procedure is:

3.1. Brainstorm on the people they know; things they need, places they know and visit; actions they do everyday. Make a list of all these. They could be asked to bring pictures to show these and they could be placed beside the words they have contributed.

3.2. Select stories/selections which have something to do with the results of the brainstorming (these should be anticipated by the teacher.) If some of the children know the story, they should be asked to tell them; then the written text should be read.

3.3. Relate the people they know with the characters they meet in the stories; the things they need with the things the characters in the story have; the places they have listed with the places given in the selection. Sharing follows.

3.4. The teacher collects the shared accounts and writes them on big sheets of paper (like the "big book"). Each group reads the accounts, repeats words/sentences as needed in the Language lesson.

3.5. Activities for each type of learner:

- linguistic learner: Think of a magic place and write a story of what you would do there.
- logical-mathematical learner: Create a place and think of activities for such a place. Give reasons for your choices. - spatial learner: Make puppets of your favorite cartoon characters, create a place for them and explain why the places are good for them.
- musical learner: Listen to a song and tell the kind of place, activity, people the song describes.
- bodily-kinesthetic learner: Create a magic place in a corner of the room or along the corridor. Select the things you would want to have in that magic place. Name them and label them.

4. Environmental Program - This program makes use of the things found in the surroundings and in the environment as tools for the development of literacy skills. The lesson involves an activity which requires planning, observation and description as well as explanation of the results. While this is considered the scientific approach, it is a natural means to develop literacy skills and it utilizes indigenous materials.

4.1. The lesson starts with planning with the students, e.g. to learn about the growth of a plant. Brainstorm on what they know about growing plants. Children bring seeds and plant them in various media with varying conditions of watering and sunning.

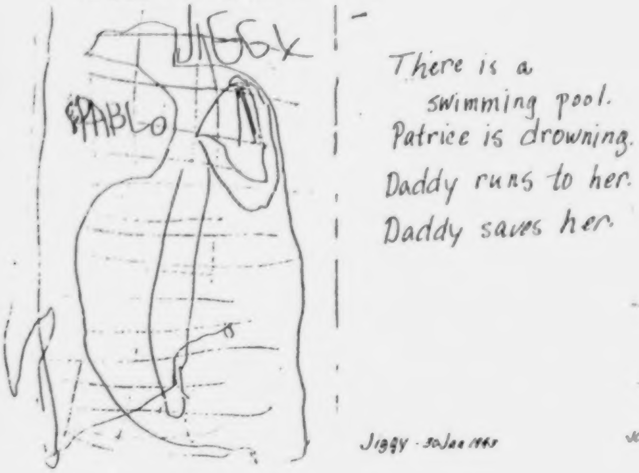
4.2. During the observation time (which could be a week or two), the children monitor the growth of each seed. They observe all the physical changes and they ask the teacher or a resource person invited by the teacher why the changes happen.

4.3. After the observation and talk, the children write or draw or diagram their observations and their reactions to the resource person's talk. The session could be recorded on video.

4.4. A trip around the school grounds follows for the students to observe the plants surrounding their school. They are asked to observe the real world outside the classroom and share their observiations. Activities for the different types of learners follow the pattern of the other programs.

Some Examples of Texts Constructed by Pre-Schoolers

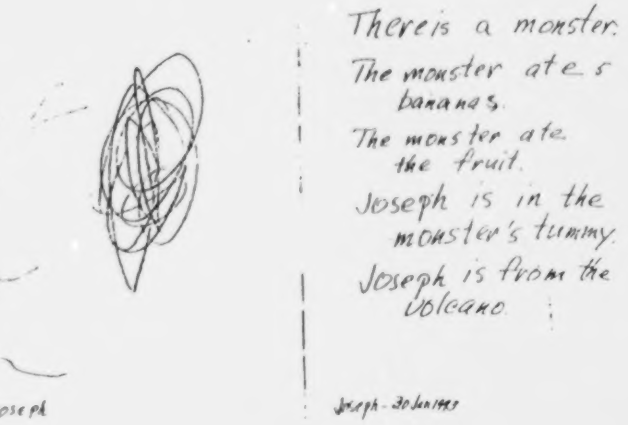
Jiggy: 5 years old



There is a swimming pool.
Patrice is drowning.
Daddy runs to her.
Daddy saves her.

Jiggy - 30 Jan 1993

Joseph: 3 years old



There is a monster.
The monster ate 5 bananas.
The monster ate the fruit.
Joseph is in the monster's tummy.
Joseph is from the volcano.

Joseph - 30 Jan 1993

Evaluation of Performance

Evaluation comes in the form of formal paper/pencil tests and observation journals done by the teachers and the parents. Children's workds are proof of the development of literacy.

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Why Do Japanese Children Read Books ?

A Developmental Study of Conceptions on Book Reading

Kiyomi Akita (Rikkyo University)
Takashi Muto (Ochanomizu University)

1 Introduction

Japanese mothers spend considerable time reading books to their children and the children spend a lot of time exploring books during their preschool years. Such experiences appear to help them to read books by the first few years of elementary school. Thus, lower graders in elementary school are well prepared to enjoy reading classes.

An annual national survey about 10 years ago on book-reading behavior by the Mainichi Newspapers Inc., however, reported that the number of children who did not read any books has increased among higher graders in elementary school and students in junior and senior high schools. The same survey published in 1993 reported a clear distinction between children who read many books and who read no books. Both children who read more than 10 books in a month and those who read no books at all increased similarly.

Our speculation on the reasons for such a trend includes: (1) children are too busy in studying and taking lessons to read books and (2) contemporary children experience various kinds of interesting media such as television, video movies, computer games like "Nintendo," radio-cassette players, and CDs so that reading may not be so stimulating.

In addition, we hypothesized that some psychological factors contributed to the differences between reading and no reading. Some children manage to read many books however busy they may be. In contrast, others prefer activities other than reading when they have free time. We speculate that children's impressions about and evaluation of book reading and their understanding of the book reading influence their motivation and frequency of reading.

Ikeda (1985) found that the number of children who did not like reading increased as their school year got higher. Wada (1987) suggested that senior high school students' reading behavior was related to what they think the social value of book reading is and whether they like or dislike book reading. Again, both studies indicate a significant role played by psychological factors on reading behavior.

Studies on book reading encompass behavioral tendencies and cognitive skills related to reading (i.e., number of books children read in a month), the types of books they like, and the relationship among the frequency of book reading, vocabulary, reading ability, and school record.

In contrast, few research studies have examined children's conceptions on book reading. Greaney & Neuman (1990) examined 10- and 13-year-old students in 15 countries concerning cognitive functions in reading, which were identified as "UTILITY," "ENJOYMENT," and "ESCAPE" (UTILITY: for success in school, to do well on examinations, to become an important person, etc.; ENJOYMENT: to have fun, to become absorbed in stories, to have a fantasy,etc; ESCAPE: to relieve boredom, to relax, to forget personal worries,etc.).

We have several questions concerning such cognitive functions. (1) Would we obtain similar results as Greaney and Neuman (1990) among Japanese children? (2) How would children evaluate book reading and would their interpretation of cognitive functions change as they get older? And (3) what kind of differences could we expect between children who read many books and those who did not?

The purposes of the present study were to clarify developmental changes in conceptions and feelings on book reading and to examine the relations among conceptions, feelings and amount of book reading in Japanese children.

2 Method

A. Subjects

Subjects were 146 third graders (80 boys and 66 girls), 164 fifth graders (72 boys and 92 girls) and 196 eighth graders (102 boys and 94 girls) from three elementary schools and one junior high school in Chiba Prefecture.

B. Questionnaire on Reading Activities

A questionnaire was made containing 3 parts: amount of book reading, evaluation and functional cognition of book reading, and liking and feelings about book reading.

C.(1) Amount of book reading Two questions were used to investigate quantity of reading. One item asked the number of books read per month and the other queried the time spent in reading per day. Children scored 1 to 5 or 6 on Likert-type scales. Two questions were proposed to see if higher graders would take longer time to read a book because it contained more letters per page and more pages than books lower graders would read.

(2) Conceptions The term "conceptions on book reading" refers to a wide range of factors: for example, knowledge about procedures, functions, and strategies of reading and book types. In this study, we focused on two aspects of reading: children's evaluations about book reading and their awareness of its functions. We consider these two aspects to be especially important in motivating children to read books.

One question dealing with "evaluation" was "How much do you think that book reading is a good thing to do?" The children indicated "a lot," "rather," "a little," "not much," or "not at all."

Questions about "cognition about function" were "What purposes do you read books for?" and " What are the advantages of reading books?" For each question, children were asked to select some statements that matched their thinking from a list of twelve. The number of selections was arbitrary. These optional statements were based on preceding studies in Japan (Ishikawa, 1985 : Wada,1987) and from college students' answers interviews concerning book reading (Akita, 1992a).

(3) Feelings about book reading Children were asked about their fondness for and impressions about book reading. For the fondness item, they answered using a 5-point rating scale. For the impression items, they used a similar scale to evaluate 6 adjectives (interesting, happy, boring, laborious, gloomy,

unpleasant) to describe their feelings about reading.

C. Procedure

Before distributing the questionnaire, the teacher gave the following instruction. "The purpose of this study is to know what you think and how you feel about book reading and how often you read. Some people like reading and others don't. This study is designed not to measure how much you read, but to know what differences there are between people who read a lot and those who don't read. So please answer these questions truthfully even if you don't like reading."

Under the classroom teacher's supervision, children were asked to fill out the questionnaire. In the third grade, the questions were read aloud to minimize problems for those with reading difficulties and to ensure that the scale would be completed in a relatively brief amount of time. The fifth and eighth grade children proceeded to answer at their own pace.

3 Results

A. Developmental differences in conceptions

(1) Evaluation

All children evaluated book reading positively. The third graders' mean score was 4.5 (SD 1.1), the fifth graders' was 4.4 (SD 1.0), and the eighth graders' was 4.3 (SD 1.0). All subjects highly rated "book reading is a good thing to do." This suggests that the Japanese seem to share a cultural belief that book reading is a significant and respected activity. Such a belief is acquired by the middle elementary-school years. Since even children who did not read books recognized that book reading was a good thing, some factors other than their evaluation of reading must account for the tendency to avoid reading.

(2) Cognition about functions

The number of optional statements the children selected increased with the school year. The third graders selected 4.9 (SD 3.6) statements on average, fifth graders 6.1 (SD 4.4), and eighth graders 7.5 (SD 4.3). The older children recognized and attached more importance to various functions of reading. The functions deemed important changed with the subject's grade.

Next, an examination of these data by a principal component analysis identified three components of functions (Table 1). The first function was "having a fantasy world and accumulating knowledge" (FANTASY & KNOWLEDGE), the second was "refreshing one's mind and killing time" (REFRESHING), and the third was "getting approbation and good grades" (APPROBATION). These three functions were similar to Greaney & Neuman's three functions ENJOYMENT, ESCAPE, and UTILITY.

Kruglanski (1975) categorized two types of attribution of actions: endogenous attribution and exogenous attribution. An action is said to be endogenously attributed when it is judged to constitute an end in itself and exogenously attributed when it is judged to serve as a means to some further end. We think this dichotomy holds true of book reading. The APPROBATION function is exogenous because reading is a means to get social approval from others. On the contrary, the FANTASY & KNOWLEDGE function and the REFRESHING function are endogenous because these functions occur in their processes and constitute an end in themselves.

As for the FANTASY & KNOWLEDGE component, older children tended to select these statements more. In contrast, the choice of the APPROBATION component decreased with grade (Fig. 1). Therefore, conceptions concerning the book-reading functions appeared to shift from an exogenous function to a more endogenous one. Thus, parents and teachers may motivate younger children to read, but children will gradually come to enjoy reading on their own and deepen their comprehension about topics that interest them through reading.

Further, an analysis was made of the number of functions among these three functions that children chose. A difference in selection pattern was found among third, fifth, and eighth graders. Between the third and fifth graders, the percentage selecting one function was higher than the percentage selecting two functions. On the contrary, many more eighth graders selected two or more functions. Students in junior high school seemed to realize the plural functions of reading. And they attached particular importance to the FANTASY & KNOWLEDGE function and the REFRESHING function.

B. Developmental differences in feelings

Figure 2 shows the differences by grade in fondness, positive impression and negative impression of reading. Although all subjects rated rather high on the fondness and positive impressive ratings, the mean score decreased with the grade. The number who showed a dislike for reading increased with the grade, while many children remained fond of reading. The contrast between children who liked reading and those who did not grew more pronounced as they advanced in school.

C. Relations among conceptions, feelings and frequencies

Figure 3 shows an illustration of the main results of a multiple regression analysis. Positive feelings were significantly predicted using the three variables of grade, subjects' evaluation of reading and score on the FANTASY & KNOWLEDGE function. The amount of book reading was shown to be predicted by grade, positive feelings toward reading and the score on the REFRESHING function. The findings indicate that some functions relate to children's feelings and others relate to the amount of reading.

4 Discussion: Implications for rethinking Book-Reading Education

The results suggested that children's reading behavior seemed to be influenced by the psychological factors of conceptions about and feelings regarding book reading during their elementary and junior high school years. In order to encourage reading, parents and teachers should emphasize to their children the enjoyable aspects of reading to their children, and should not appeal to the practical utility of reading such as being "useful for getting high grades."

This sort of adult involvement is likely to foster children's positive feeling toward reading and help motivate them to read books.

Akita (1992b) categorized four aspects of the family environment that influenced children's book reading: (a) provider of the physical environment, (b) a model of expert book reading, (c) encouragement of children's reading activities, and (d) co-participant in reading. Akita's results showed that personal and social environments influenced children's feelings and amount of reading more than the physical environment did. Children will come to like reading more when adults reconsider the qualitative aspects of their involvement with children in reading in addition to just providing them with books.

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Table 1 Optional statements concerning Functions

< FANTASY & KNOWLEDGE >

- Reading stimulate you to have fantasy.
- Reading leads you to get a great impression.
- Reading gives you a chance to comprehend things deeply.
- You get various ideas through reading.
- You acquire new knowledge by reading.

< Refreshing >

- You talk with a friend about books .
- Reading makes you feel fun.
- Reading helps you to refresh your mind.
- Reading helps you to kill time.

< Approbation >

- You are praise by your teachers and parents because of reading.
- Reading contributes to get higher grade.
- Reading help you becoming an important person.

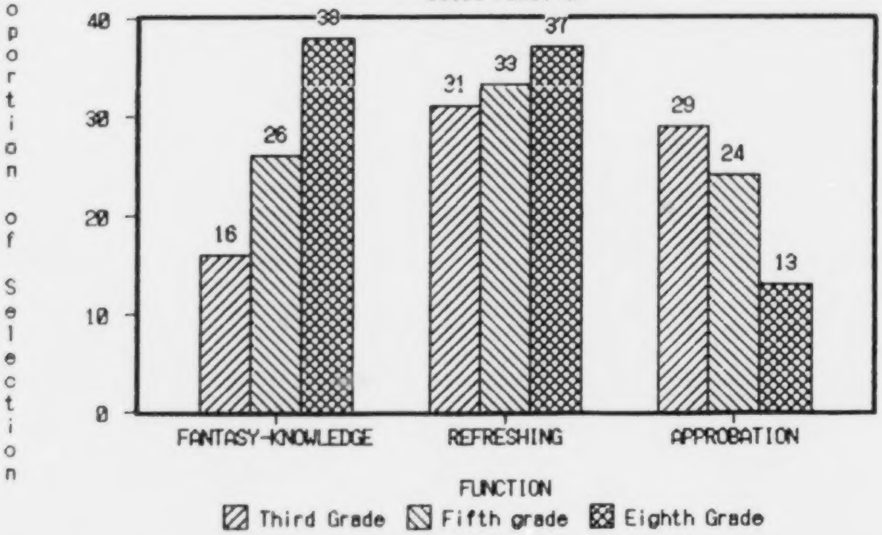


FIG.1 Developmental change about Function

Fig.2 Developmental Change about Feelings

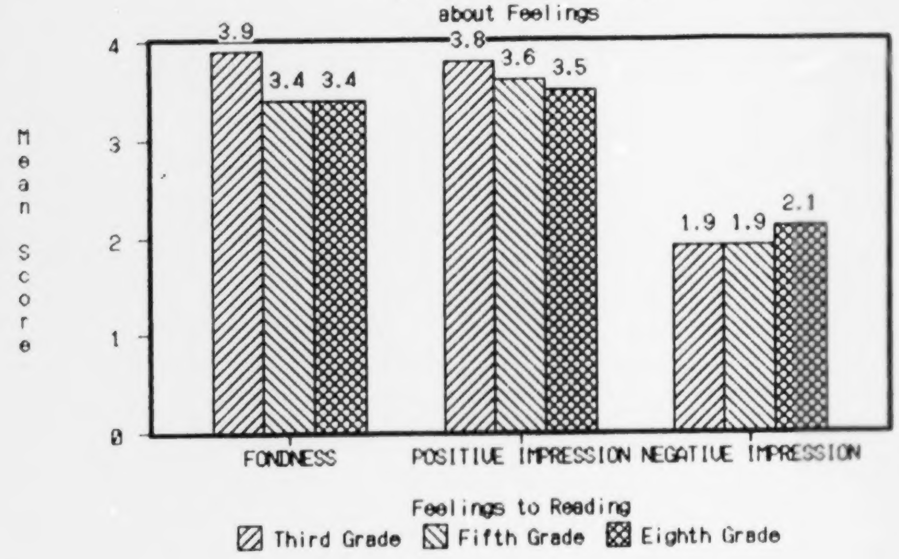
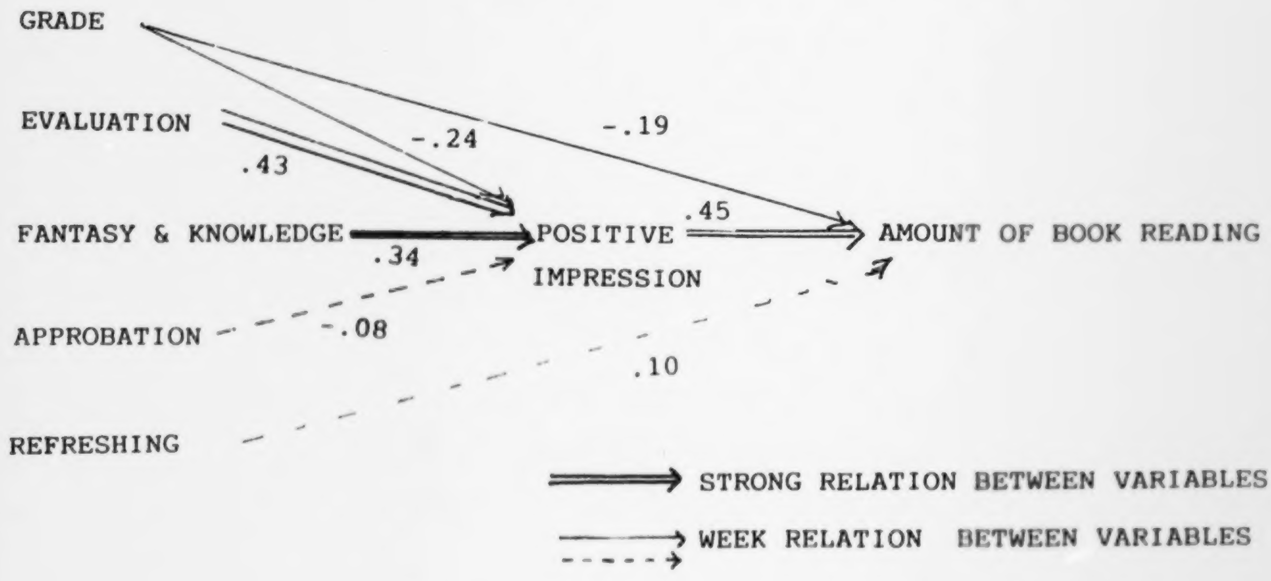


Fig. 3 Relations between conceptions, feelings and frequencies (Pass diagram)


GRADE
EVALUATION
FANTASY & KNOWLEDGE
APPROBATION
REFRESHING
POSITIVE IMPRESSION
AMOUNT OF BOOK READING
-.24
-.19
.43
.34
.45
-.08
.10
STRONG RELATION BETWEEN VARIABLES
WEEK RELATION BETWEEN VARIABLES

PHILOSOPHY IS ALSO FOR CHILDREN - TEACHING REASONING SKILLS TO YOUNG CHILDREN

NORMA LAZARO-JARAMILLO
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Background on Philosophy for Children

The Philosophy for Children programs attempt to develop and sharpen the reflective thinking capacities of children and young adults. The programs are an attempt to redesign education in order to: 1) rectify deficiencies in basic skills, 2) allow children to recognize and construct inferences, 3) promote creativity, and 4) correct a fragmented educational experience by encouraging and reintegrating skills and knowledge across the various subject areas. Reflective thinking skills are not only the foundation for mastery of reading and mathematics, but prepare children in the search for broader educational experiences, the search for meaning and significance in and out of school. Thus, the aim of Philosophy for Children is not for children to learn philosophy, but to encourage them to think philosophically, that is to learn to think clearly for themselves.

Philosophy for Children curricula have been developed over the past two decades to address the lack of thinking skills program. The programs, eight in all, are designed to develop the cognitive skills of children from kindergarten to high school.

Philosophy for Children is truly an international movement as successful programs are in place in over 23 countries world wide. The materials consisting of novels and teachers' manuals have been translated into Spanish, French, Portuguese, German, Chinese and Korean and several other languages.

The Institute for the Advancement of Philosophy for Children (IAPC) based in Monclair, New Jersey, is the founding institution and publisher of these programs. The Institute trains teacher-trainees and continues to oversee the implementation of the program in schools, both nationally and internationally.

What is Philosophy for Children?

Many people find it hard to believe that Philosophy could become an elementary school subject. They even find the experimental results even harder to believe. In a year-long experiment conducted by the Educational Testing Service in Newark, N.J. highly significant improvement were reported in reading, mathematics and creative reasoning. The experimental subjects never read Plato, Kant nor Aristotle. What they read are novels about school children much like themselves.

Philosophy for Children consists of a series of texts in which fictional children spend a considerable portion of their time thinking about ways in which better thinking can be distinguished from poorer thinking. The keys to learning presented in the programs are identification and stimulation: through reading the texts and engaging in classroom discussions and exercises that follow the reading, the foremost objective is for the students to identify with the characters and to join the kinds of thinking depicted in the program. There are 30 thinking skills that Philosophy for Children intend to foster in children. A representative sampling of these skills included the following:

Concept development. The children clarify their understanding of concept by applying them to specific cases. they learn to identify those cases that are within the boundaries and those that are outside. For example, when considering the concept of friendship, children are asked whether people have to be of the same age to be friends, whether two people can be friends and not like each other very much, and whether it is possible for friends ever to lie to one another.

Generalization. Given a set of facts, students are to note uniformities or regularities and to generalize these regularities from given instances to similar ones. For example, children might be asked to consider generalizations that can be drawn from a set of given facts such as, "I get sick when I eat green mangoes. I get sick when I eat strawberries," etc.

Consistency and contradictions. Students should recognize internal consistencies and inconsistencies within a given set of statements or other data. For example, they might be asked to ponder whether it is possible to eat animals if one genuinely cares about them.

Nonreversability of logical "all" statements. "a sentence can't be reversed. If you put the last part of the sentence first, it will no longer be true." For example, we cannot convert "all model airplanes are toys," into "all toys are model airplanes."

Reversibility of "No" statements. Logical "no" statements can be reversed. "No submarines are kangaroos," for example, can be converted to "No kangaroos are submarines."

Philosophy for Children is an exceptional thinking skills program because of a number of unusual features. First, it gives children a fresh look at the logic already embedded in the language they use in everyday life. Second, it provides a wealth of exercises and activities based upon those philosophical concepts which children love to talk about, such as friendship, fairness, reality, truth, being a person and goodness. Third, it is based on the assumption that discussion skills are the foundation of thinking skills. Discussions are the most powerful means there are for setting children to become more alert and skillful thinkers. In a philosophy classroom, children learn to reason together. When they pool their intellectual strengths they can often travel as fast and as far as adults thinking by themselves. Educators through out the world are turning to philosophy to help make their children become more reflective and more reasonable. Then children of philosophy are thankful for they have been able to find fresh meanings in what they read and say and do.

Over the years, interest in teaching reflective thinking skills has grown tremendously that at present it is a main focus on the national educational agenda. Philosophy for Children curriculum is one attempt at effectively developing thinking skills in children.

The significance of recent inquiries into reasoning skills are fundamental basis for reading and mathematical skills.

Any curriculum designed to teach children sound reasoning skills must be founded upon general theory of cognitive development. The pattern of cognitive development assumed by the Philosophy for Children curriculum is based primarily upon the theories of the American philosopher and educator John Dewey. His theories implies plausible practices for the teaching of reflective thinking skills.

Central to the learning process is the concept of "habit." But Dewey's view on habits do not form out of mere repetition but develop out of our ability to meet new situations, new goals, new patterns of activity which have proved successful in dealings with qualitatively similar situations. This ability of connecting up past experiences and present circumstances so as to anticipate possible consequences of actions is what Dewey means by reflective thinking or reasoning. Reasoning is somthing developed through experience that allows us to react intelligently to the situation at hand. All cognitive activity is exemplified by the term "inquiry" which is a sustained patterned of inference aimed at resolving some problematic situation. Dewey linked up reasoning skills and habits, both are said to evolve as previous experiences shed new light on present situations by providing us new methods of effecting desired ends. there are certain kind of experience which are more effective in establishing valuable reasoning tools. These are social experiences.

There are some educational experts who doubt that inferential or reflective thinking skills can be taught at all. For example, some believe that reasoning relies on innate capacities that are fixed and final at birth. Most of the studies now published, however, point to the opposite conclusion that reasoning skills can be profoundly affected through curriculum measures introduced to help train children to develop good reasoning strategies. Philosophy for Children curriculum grew out of the above theoretical framework as a definite way of approaching the task of teaching reasoning skills to children.

In a Philosophy for Children classroom the children read a especially designed novel filled with characters and events that challenge the children to examine ideas and new perspectives in the forms of community of inquiry. Here, the teacher is but a facilitator or orchestrator of dicussion and cooperative group activities. It is important to note that the topics for discussions are those brought up by the interests of the children themselves, and not imposed by the teacher. This is a guarantee that the ensuing philosophical inquiry remains relevant to the needs and interests of the children. The children are encouraged to think divergently, testing out a wide diversity of possible answers to the questions raised. The development of creativity and imagination is at the center of the Philosophy for Children curriculum.

In the philosophy for Children program, it is emphasized not just that the children achieve a solution to problem, but each solution that is offered be given a fair hearing and that judgment of the best solution be based on sound reasoning. All opinions should have some appeal to reasons as their support. In order to stress this point to the children, it is important that the teacher develop a keen ear so as to be able to ask effective follow-up questions which encourage the children to seek out the reasons for their views. The goal is that through the give and take of common inquiry, each child will internalize the good reasoning habits of the group. In effect, the child's thinking ability will be a mental model of the process of inquiry carried out by the class as a whole, cognizance of alternative views being taken into account so as to arrive at a well-grounded conclusion.

Statement of Need

The lack of thinking skills programs is particularly evident in the Philippine classroom. While teachers in the Philippines are trained in educational theories that call for thinking-centered curricula -- being trained in the thought of John Dewey, Jean Piaget and others -- yet there are no existing curriculum materials available that allow the classroom teacher to put such ideas into practice. Instead, the typical teacher has no alternative but to use traditional patterns of instruction that are severely deficient in addressing the need for cognitive development. The result among children is cognitive deficiency that is multiplied over the course of higher skill development. The result among teachers is frustration, frustration from the fact that educational theory is not infused into educational practice.

The Philippine Normal College now Philippine Normal University was fortunate to have launched a project sponsored by the Fil-American International Transfer of Help (FAITH) and the United Nation Development Programme-Short Term Advisory Services (UNDP-STAS) to explore the possibility of implementing the Philosophy for Children thinking skills curriculum in the Philippine classrooms. The project was conducted by by Dr. John J. Holder currently assistant professor of Philosophy at St. Norbert College in New Jersey. This exploratory phase was implemented at the Laboratory School of the Philippine Normal college. The fifth graders were instructed with the HARRY program. This exploratory phase yielded very positive results (as measured by the New Jersey Test of reasoning Skills), indicating a high potential for success in Philippine classrooms. The Laboratory School faculty were trained in the HARRY program. These faculty members conducted a year-long experiment to study further the elements of implementation of Philosophy for Children in the Philippine Curriculum. Strong support for the project has been communicated by the Department of Education in the Philippines and a full-scale implementation of the project is being considered as it is still on-going up to the present school-year.

An Innovative Teaching Strategy - the PNC Laboratory School Experience with Harry Stottlemeier's Discovery

The grade five pupils experienced a new kind of learning using the text in Philosophy for Children.

Twice a week of one hour per session the English class became a philosophy class. The novel "Harry Stottlemeier's Discovery was used. This text is a 100-page children's reader. This novel is named after its leading fictional character. It provides the basic reasoning tools - the techniques of critical thinking, formal and informal logic. The text also offers a model of dialogue, both of children with one another and of children with adults. Its story is set within a classroom of children who begin to think about thinking and in the process discover the principles of reasoning. They also discover, in the events that follow both within and outside the classroom, that they can apply their thinking effectively to situations in real life.

The story is also a teaching model. It points up the value of inquiry, encourages the development of alternative modes of thought and imagination, and suggest how children are able to learn profitably from one another. Further, it sketched what it might be like to live and participate in a small community where children have their own interests, yet respect each other as people and are capable at times of engaging in cooperative inquiry for no other reason than satisfaction of doing so..

Instruments and data gathering techniques used

The subjects were administered a pre-test and post-test to determine the level of reasoning skill at the beginning and conclusion of the project. The instrument used was the New Jersey Test of Reasoning Skills developed by Dr. Virginia Shipman of the Educational Testing Service in Princeton, New Jersey. This test has been shown to be a reliable indicator of skill in reasoning. The test was slightly revised to replaced words unfamiliar to Filipino students with those more familiar to them. No structural changes were made. The test is comprised of 50 multiple choice questions, with three possible answers offered (a, b or c). The major reasoning skills tested are: conversion; logical standardization; inclusive disjunction; exclusive disjunction; fallacies: begging the questions, jumping to conclusions, dubious authority, affirming the consequent; analogical reasoning, detecting underlying assumptions; inductive inference, modus ponens; modus tollens; hypothetical reasoning; relationships: part-whole, reflexive, symmetric, and transitive; recognizing ambiguity/vagueness; differences of degree/kind; and contradiction.

Implementation of instruction: classroom procedures

1. Children read aloud and discuss an episode from the text.
2. The teacher has them identify the themes or concepts they find most interesting.
3. Such notions are open for discussion.
4. The learners discover the importance of supporting the views they express by means of convincing reasons. They learn to listen attentively, thereby discovering differences of perspective within the group.
5. The learners explore problems cooperatively often "building on" one another's ideas.
6. The learners recognize the value of reasoning logically.
7. They share tasks of discerning problems and discovering meanings.
8. They build up a community of inquiry. There is a transfer of various styles of thinking.
9. Each learner internalizes.
10. Each learner becomes more self-critical and

exercises self-control.

What transpired in the classroom

As the pupil went through the novel, the pupils discovered both formal and informal rules of thought. As they discussed ideas introduced by the characters in the novel, they begun to think about their own thinking and became concerned about improving it. They examined alternative ways of viewing things and they were assisted in discovering and applying the rules of reasons to questions of significance to them. The characters in the novel model the discovery of both formal and informal rules of thoughts. In the novel Harry and his friends struggled to figure things out. Formal logic is one of the tools used in this quest, but as the children discovered, it is not enough. They struggled to figure things out by seeking reasons for things they do not understand and by assessing the reasons given them.

Going through the novel on Harry it was noted that it increased children's reasoning skills as well as their abilities to draw valid inferences. They were helped to see connections and make distinctions. They developed creative as well as logical abilities. They were helped to discover alternatives the need for objectivity and consistency and the importance of giving reasons for beliefs.

Experimental Results

When the fifth graders were asked to describe the effects of Philosophy for Children had on them and how philosophical discussions differ from other classroom discussions they made such comments as: "It made me think." "I learned a lot." "We're able to take more risks in answering difficult questions without feeling uncomfortable or stupid."

The gains of experimental group were found to be highly significant at $p<.05$ (as assesed by t-tests). This clearly demonstrates the effectiveness of the program of instruction which is very encouraging for the success of future development of the Harry program in the Philippine classrooms. The result is quite remarkable given the extreme brevity of instructions and time lapse between testings. The result of this experiment as shown by the children's responses revealed that they do not only need philosophy, they want philosophy. As observed, the children respond very warmly, very cordially when they have an opportunity to discuss things openly and the freedom to discuss things for themselves.

The faculty agreed that though there are rarely clearcut answers for philosophical issues, children need to explore options amd discover their own solutions.

In a sense, philosophy is not taught to children, it is extracted from them. Gradually, the children discover that a philosophical discussion has a different style from any other kind of discussion. The children eventually understood the importance of recognizing other people's viewpoints and giving reasons for their own views. Out of this understanding emerges a sense of value of impartiality and the need to think problems through rather than be satisfied with the glib opinions.

Teaching philosophy to children as a distinct discipline has a carry-over effect into other disciplines. Any teacher seeking to introduce philosophy into the classroom must be committed to the basic principles of the program. The teacher must create an atmosphere where children manifest respect for one another. To do this, the teacher must respect the children as unique individuals capable of understanding and creating meaning in the world. A willingness to follow the rules of reason must prevail. Philosophy for Children presupposes a commitment to open inquiry that must be shared by the teacher as well as by members of the class.

As a subject, Philosophy is highly teacher-sensitive; not everyone can be sure of teaching it successfully. To teach Philosophy requires several abilities - the ability to listen scrupulously to what children actually say and are trying to say, the ability to recognize the logical patterns of children's discourse and the philosophical dimension of their concerns, the ability to orchestrate discussions, and the ability to encourage children to think for themselves.

The best way to develop children's reasoning is to make philosophy a central part of the elementary school curriculum.

The cultivation of reasoning can not be carried out unless we use criteria to distinguish better thinking from worse, and only philosophy provide such criteria.

"... it is not enough for students to simply learn the content of academic disciplines - to be truly educated, students must be able to think in those disciplines."

Today's children are tomorrows citizens. As members of a democracy, they need help in becoming more reasonable and reflective human beings. Though not a panacea, Philosophy for Children is a move in the right direction as our society awakens to its need for a more concerned and reflective citezenry. Philosophy for Children plays an increasingly important role in the education of the future.

The prospects of developing thinking skills programs such as philosophy for children should be widely disseminated - the long term success of any educational innovation is crucially dependent on the delivery of information about such programs to educationalists and policy-makers.

A Comparative Study of Opinions about Methods of Picture Book Reading In Japan and Taiwan

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A child's first encounter with a picture book does not take place in the form of such literary behaviour as the child taking a book into its hands and reading the words printed there. It first takes place with the parent or teacher reading a story to the child. "Story-reading" from a picture book is a linguistic activity quite different to conventional reading, ie. reading the text printed in a book to oneself, and to story-telling, ie. relating a story for a child simply to listen to. It is an activity based on the close interraction of adult and child, which encompasses the unique mechanism of the adult reading aloud the written words forming the text, and the child listening, while at the same time looking at the pictures illustrating the book.

What are the conditions which play a role in story-reading from picture books? Nakamura (1991) examined psychological studies of story-reading appearing in The Science of Reading and The Japanese Journal of Educational Psychology over the past ten years. From this, it became evident that the articles could be classified into seven categories according the nature of the variables under investigation in each particular study, as shown in Fig. 1. The seven categories of variables are as follows:

① Concerning picture books. This includes variables concerned with the pictures drawn by the illustrator, the theme of the story written by the author, the content, construction, expression, size and shape of the book and so forth.

② Concerning the reader. The reader of the picture book is usually a parent, teacher or other such adult. Variables included here are the story-reader's vocal skills, skill of expression, attitude, and way of displaying the book, the level of the reader's own comprehension of book's content, the reader's understanding of the listener's behavioural characteristics depending on mental and physical development, or age, and so forth.

③ Concerning the listener. The listener is usually a child between two and six years of age. Variables such as age, sex, intellect, comprehension ability, level of concentration and interest sustained during the story-reading, behaviour as an individual and as a member of a group, etc, are considered.

④ Concerning both the picture book and the reader. Research investigating the results of influencing the listener's memory and comprehension of the story by, for example, presenting information about the story's main theme or pictures prior to the reading.

⑤ Concerning both the reader and the listener. The variables in this category relate to the introduction of some element of control into the interaction between reader and listener during the story-reading. Research into the effect of posing questions in the middle of the story reading would, for example, fall into this category.

⑥ Concerning both the picture book and the listener. This is a category connected with both the presentation of the picture book and text, and the listener's age, sex, etc. Research investigating developmental features of liguistic behaviour and levels of comprehension in children hearing varying kinds of picture book read, falls into this category.

⑦ Concerning the picture book, reader and listener. This includes all the main variables connected with story reading: The presentation of the book's text and pictures; the reader's story-reading technique; the listener's age etc.

On taking a general, bibligraphic overview of psychological research centering on the main variables connected with story reading, the following observations could be made:

(1) Regarding the variable concerning the picture book and the listener, the kind of study most frequently carried out in recent years, has been the qualitative investigation of pre-story-reading information designed to influence comprehension of the story.

(2) Studies investigating the reader's story-reading technique from an educational psychology or learning psychology viewpoint are quite rare.

(3) Studies investigating the story-reading variables in a comprehensive way, encompassing the three elements of picture book, reader and listener, are quite rare.

Thus, the present study is an investigation of the little researched area described in (2) above, ie. the reader's story-reading technique, and, in particular, the conditions for successful story reading. More specifically, the aim was to clarify what conditions are desirable for the reading aloud of picture books, by means of a questionnaire-type survey of nursery teachers in Japan and Taiwan, followed by the factor analysis of this survey.

Method

Subjects

The data for Japan was taken from Nakamura's study (1991). Thus, the subjects were 100 teachers from kindergartens and nursery schools in Kyoto, Osaka and Nara Prefectures. The subjects in Taiwan were 100 teachers from kindergartens and nursery schools in Tainan City, Taiwan Province, People's Republic of China.

Content of the Survey

In Nakamura's study (1991), a survey comprising 31 items was used to investigate the conditions favourable to the reading aloud of picture books (Table 1). The survey was compiled with reference to reading methods described as favourable in Yoda (1982) et al. A translation of the survey into Mandarin Chinese was used in Taiwan.

Materials

Survey sheet printed with the above-mentioned 31 items and a scale of one to five for rating each item.

Period of Survey

Japan: 27 June ~ 10 July 1990

Taiwan: 20 June ~ 30 July 1992

Procedure

Japan: The survey sheets were sent out to the kindergartens and nursery schools which had agreed to take part in the survey. The schools returned the completed answer sheets.

Taiwan: The research coordinator in Taiwan visited each kindergarten and nursery school, distributed the survey sheets and asked for them to be filled in. Coordinator collected the completed answer sheets some days later.

Method of filling in the survey sheet: The subject was asked to evaluate each item, circling a number from one to five according to the degree to which the subject considered each picture book reading technique favourable.

Results and Observations

1. Investigation of the factors comprising favourable methods of story reading

In order to investigate what psychological implications were held by the survey items on the conditions favourable to picture book reading, a factor analysis was carried out by means of varimax rotation and the principal factor method. The number of factors was then determined, and the items with factor loading of greater than 0.40 for any particular factor were used as representatives of that factor. As a result, five factors were extracted for both the teachers in Japan and the teachers in Taiwan. The factor loadings (over 0.40) for each factor in the two groups were as shown in Table **2** and Table **3** .

The next stage was to investigate the features of each factor in the two groups, and assign a name to each factor.

The five factors for teachers in Japan are described below:

Factor 1 was termed the "Story-telling / Reading style" factor, and was based on such survey items as No.20, "Taking care that the reading speed does not become too fast", No.22, "Reading with clear enunciation", and No.21, "Changing the speed of reading and turning pages according to the content and flow of the story".

Factor 2 was termed the "Concern for the child as listener" factor. It was based on such survey items as No.13, "Sometimes looking towards the child while reading", and No.15, "Paying attention to changes in the child's expression while reading".

Factor 3 was termed the "Way of holding the story book and showing it to the child" factor. It was based on survey items such as No.8, "Positioning the picture book just below the shoulders, around chest area", No.10 "Taking care not to cover the pictures with fingers or hands when turning the page", and No.11, "Encouraging the habit of opening up picture books".

Factor 4 was termed the "Reactions to child's comments and exclamations" factor. It was based on such survey items as No.30, "Responding positively to the child's comments during the story reading", and No.31, "Treating seriously any exclamations provoked by the story".

Factor 5 was termed the "Questions and discussion" factor. It was based on survey items such as No.18, "Eliciting comment as a means of maintaining the continuity when a page with no words appears", and No.28, "Taking care not to interrupt the flow of the story with questions in the middle of the story reading".

The five factors for teachers in Taiwan are as follows:

Factor 1 was termed the "Effective reading" factor, and was based on such survey items as No. 13, "Sometimes looking towards the child while reading", and No.14, "Reading in a natural way".

Factor 2 was termed the "Presentation of the picture book" factor. It was based on such survey items as No.7, "Taking care that the story reading does not suddenly stop when the page is being turned", and No.9, "Always holding the picture book steady so that it does not shake".

Factor 3 was termed the "Creation of a pleasant environment for reading" factor. It was based on such survey items as No.1, "Choosing a picture book whose text suits the age and development of the child", No.2, "Providing an environment in which the child will feel like listening to a story book", and No.3, "Creating a feeling of expectation and excitement about the content of the story reading".

Factor 4 was termed the "Holding the child's attention" factor. It was based on such survey items as No.5, "Choosing a room where there are no objects or noises likely to distract the child's attention", No.6, "Showing the pictures for as long as the child remains interested", and No.16, "Reading as if relating a real story to the child".

Factor 5 was termed the "Stimulating the child's interest" factor. It was based on such survey items as No.17, "Trying to read like an accomplished actor" and No.30, "Responding positively to child's comments during the story reading".

There were no factors common to both Japan and Taiwan which could be described by the exact same name, but there were two pairs of factors which were assigned similar names. These were, (a) Japan's Factor 1, "Story-telling / Reading style", and Taiwan's Factor 1, "Effective Reading", and (b), Japan's Factor 3, "Way of holding the picture book and showing it to the children", and Taiwan's Factor 2, "Presentation of the picture book". In the factors in (a), item numbers 20, 21, 22, 23 and 26 are common to both Japan and Taiwan. These are the items concerning reading at a suitable speed, reading with clear pronunciation, taking moderate pauses, altering the tone of voice to read speeches, and so forth. They could be described as points of consideration of phonetic importance to the successful reading of picture books. In the factors in (b), the common items are numbers 8, 10, and 11. These are the items concerning positioning the book below the shoulders, around the chest area when showing it to the child, taking care to encourage the habit of opening up picture books, and so forth. They are the items among the conditions for successful story reading, concerned with the care of books and the presentation and clear displaying of pictures.

Of the other factors, "Concern for the child as listener", "Reactions to the child's comments and exclamations", and "Questions and discussion" were unique to Japan, and "Stimulating the child's interest", "Holding the child's attention", and "Creation of a pleasant environment for reading" were unique to Taiwan. Thus it could be seen that, on comparing teachers from Japan and Taiwan, although common factors existed, there were more factors which were different in the two countries. This indicates that even among teachers themselves, the conditions considered to be favourable for the reading aloud of picture books differ considerably between Japan and Taiwan.

2. Investigation of individual items

An investigation was carried out to discover the nature of discrepencies occurring between the two groups of subjects, regarding each individual survey item.

Table **4** shows the top five highest scoring items in Japan and Taiwan respectively.

It is interesting to observe that, of the two countries' top five items, three items are common to both Japan and Taiwan. To specify, these are items No.1, "Choosing a picture book whose text suits the age and development of the child", No.13, "Sometimes looking towards the child while reading". and No.22, "Reading with clear enunciation". In other words, the conditions considered by teachers in both Japan and Taiwan to be most important to the successful reading aloud of picture books, are, *(1)* choosing picture books suited to the child's development and interests; *(2)* looking sympathetically towards the child during the story-reading; *(3)* reading with clear enunciation. Considering the other items which are different in the two countries, teachers in Japan can be seen to attach importance to concern for the child as listener, while in Taiwan they value story-reading skills. This is illustrative of the distintive features of the two countries.

Table **5** shows the five lowest scoring items in Japan and Taiwan. Three items can be seen to be common to both Japan and Taiwan. To be specific, these are items No.6, "Showing the picture for as long as the child remains interested", No.11, "Taking care to encourage the habit of opening up picture books, so as to prevent any development of apathy towards books" and No.17, "Trying to read like an accomplished actor". As stated at the beginning of this paper, showing the pictures to the children is an indispensable element of story reading. However, the teachers in both countries obviously believe that there is no need to show the pictures "for as long as the child remains interested". Similarly, it can be seen that "Encouraging the habit of opening books" and "Trying to read like an accomplished actor" are also not considered to be vitally important conditions. Items No.24, "Taking care not to dwell too long just on explaining words in the text", and No.29, "Respecting the child's own emotions and not needlessly asking for comments and impressions after the reading" had conspicuously low scores in Taiwan. Among the Japanese teachers, however, item No.24 ranked fifteenth and No.29 ranked thirteenth, thus they could not be described as low scorers.

It was learned that, in Taiwan, mothers and teachers often ask the child , "Did you understand?" after reading them a story. This habit does not exist in Japan, and its existence in Taiwan could be seen to account for the fact that the "not asking for comments" item scored so low among Taiwanese teachers. Further, it seems that in Taiwan, in general, there is quite a lot of time spent during the story-reading on explaing words in the text. This could be the reason that "not explaining the words" also received a low score.

Through the study of the structure of the factors relating to the successful reading aloud of picture books, and of the teachers' evaluation of individual survey items, we have been able to observe points of similarity and of difference between teachers in Japan and Taiwan. Nakamura (1991) noted that very little psychological research of this kind, concerning the reading aloud of picture books, is being carried out in Japan. This was found to be true also for Taiwan. Thus, to conclude, the authors would like to affirm that, within the present research project, an international comparative study of the reading aloud of picture books was completed, out of which valuable, new information has been gained.

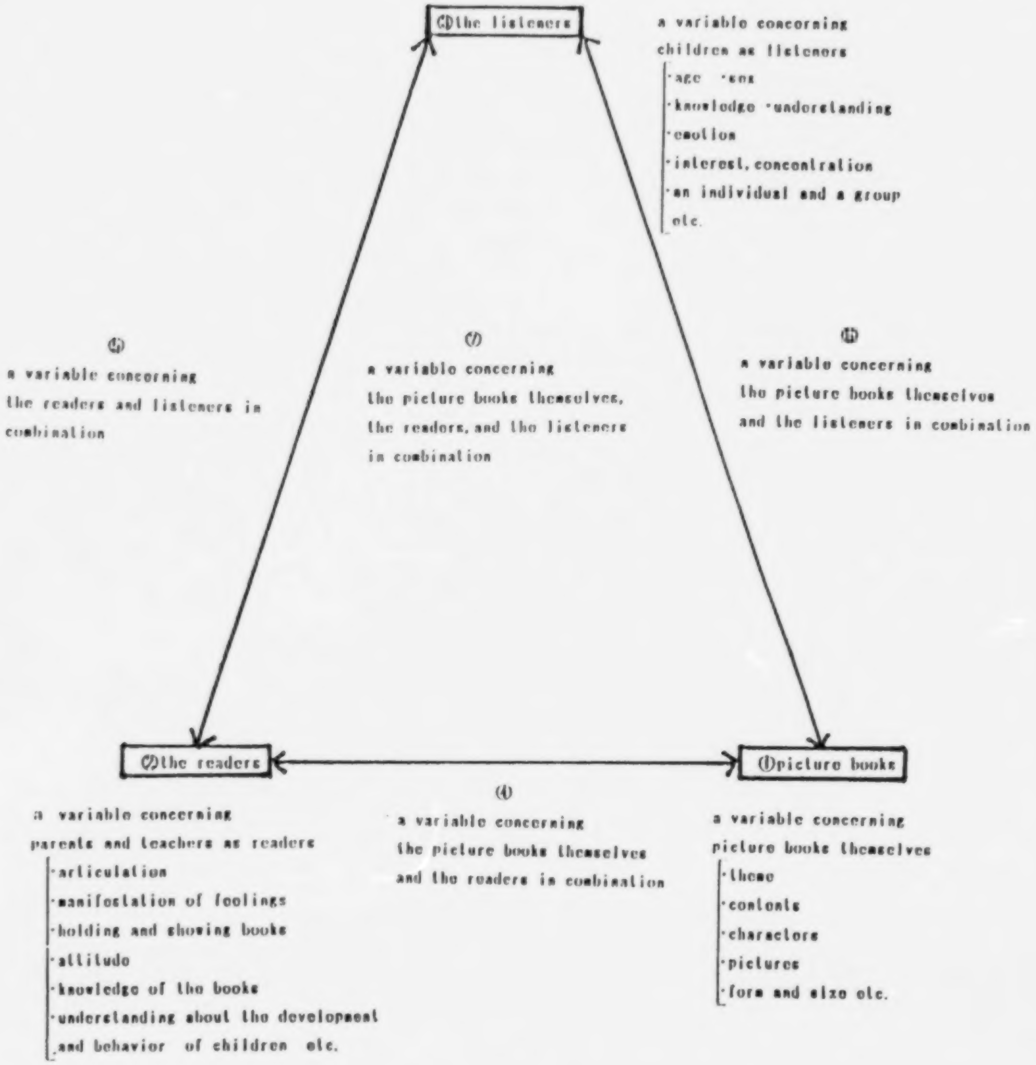
③the listeners
a variable concerning
children as listeners
·age ·sex
·knowledge ·understanding
·emotion
·interest, concentration
·an individual and a group
etc.
⑥
a variable concerning
the readers and listeners in
combination
⑦
a variable concerning
the picture books themselves,
the readers, and the listeners
in combination
⑤
a variable concerning
the picture books themselves
and the listeners in combination
②the readers
①picture books
④
a variable concerning
parents and teachers as readers
·articulation
·manifestation of feelings
·holding and showing books
·attitude
·knowledge of the books
·understanding about the development
and behavior of children etc.
a variable concerning
the picture books themselves
and the readers in combination
a variable concerning
picture books themselves
·theme
·contents
·characters
·pictures
·form and size etc.

Fig1. Variables in reading picture books to young children

(NAKAMURA, 1991)

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Table 1 The questionnaire used for the survey

Affiliation (kindergarten / nursery school) Age.

Date of completion:

This is a survey investigating the conditions favourable to the reading aloud of picture books to children on a one to one, adult : child basis. Please decide what level of importance you attach to each item below, and circle the appropriate number.

		Level of importance
1	Choosing a picture book whose text suits the age and development of the child.	1 2 3 4 5
2	Providing an environment in which the child will feel like listening to a story book.	1 2 3 4 5
3	Creating a feeling of expectation and excitement about the content of the story reading.	1 2 3 4 5
4	Arranging seating so that it is easy to see the pictures and hear the story.	1 2 3 4 5
5	Choosing a room where there are no objects or noises likely to distract the child's attention.	1 2 3 4 5
6	Showing the pictures for as long as the child remains interested.	1 2 3 4 5
7	Taking care that the story reading does not suddenly stop when the page is being turned.	1 2 3 4 5
8	Positioning the picture book just below the shoulders, around chest area.	1 2 3 4 5
9	Always holding the picture book steady so that it does not shake.	1 2 3 4 5
10	Taking care not to cover the pictures with fingers or hands when turning the page.	1 2 3 4 5
11	Taking care to encourage the habit of opening up picture books, so as to prevent any development of apathy towards books.	1 2 3 4 5
12	Positioning the book so that it can be seen by the child.	1 2 3 4 5
13	Sometimes looking towards the child while reading.	1 2 3 4 5
14	Reading in a natural way.	1 2 3 4 5
15	Paying attention to changes in the child's expression while reading.	1 2 3 4 5
16	Reading as if relating a real story to the child.	1 2 3 4 5
17	Trying to read like an accomplished actor.	1 2 3 4 5
18	Eliciting comment as a means of maintaining the continuity when a page with no words appears.	1 2 3 4 5
19	Learning the words of the story book well.	1 2 3 4 5
20	Taking care that the reading speed does not become too fast.	1 2 3 4 5
21	Changing the speed of reading and turning pages according to the content and flow of the story.	1 2 3 4 5
22	Reading with clear enunciation.	1 2 3 4 5
23	Taking suitably long pauses during the story-reading.	1 2 3 4 5
24	Taking care not to dwell too long just on explaining words in the text.	1 2 3 4 5
25	Reading in a usual voice.	1 2 3 4 5
26	Altering the tone of voice slightly for speeches of particular characters in the story.	1 2 3 4 5
27	Not continuing reading immediately on turning a page, but allowing time to show the picture first.	1 2 3 4 5
28	Taking care not to interrupt the flow of the story by asking questions in the middle of the story-reading.	1 2 3 4 5
29	Respecting the child's own emotions and not needlessly asking for comments and impressions after the reading.	1 2 3 4 5
30	Responding positively to the child's comments during the story reading.	1 2 3 4 5
31	Treating seriously any exclamations provoked by the story.	1 2 3 4 5

Please check that you have circled a number for all 31 items. Thank you for your cooperation.

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Table 2 Factor Structure for the Japanese Group

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Communality
20	0.6890					0.5876
24	0.6426					0.5174
22	0.6317					0.5611
23	0.6276					0.5167
26	0.5196					0.5560
9	0.4954					0.5121
21	0.4709					0.4988
13		0.6763				0.4956
15		0.6536				0.4933
7		0.4984				0.3825
12		0.4609				0.3860
1		0.4607				0.2377
3		0.4549				0.2419
16		0.4050				0.3635
8			0.7226			0.5284
10			0.6678			0.6467
11			0.6646			0.4830
30				0.8015		0.6905
31				0.6320		0.6398
27				0.4590		0.2890
6				0.4484		0.3380
19				0.4469		0.3276
29					0.5909	0.4425
18					-0.4916	0.5943
25					0.4910	0.2819
28					0.4875	0.4231
Distribution rate	10.9800	9.4800	9.1600	6.7000	6.5900	42.9100

Note: over 0.40 factor loadings were shown on this table

Table 3 Factor Structure for the Taiwanese Group

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Communality
26	0.7020					0.7089
28	0.6794					0.6056
20	0.6449					0.5638
15	0.6442					0.6612
27	0.6363					0.4973
25	0.6142					0.6138
18	0.6042					0.5156
21	0.5969					0.4893
14	0.5941					0.5725
9		-0.8400				0.7584
11		-0.7025				0.6696
10		-0.6458				0.6737
8		-0.5489				0.5616
7		-0.4574				0.5933
24		-0.4316				0.5442
3			-0.7049			0.6124
1			-0.6081			0.5000
4			-0.5428			0.5945
2			-0.5089			0.4472
12			-0.4084			0.6212
16				0.6999		0.7605
5				0.5806		0.6163
6				0.5687		0.5257
29					0.7227	0.6096
17					0.5768	0.3614
30					0.5247	0.6652
Distribution rate	20.6022	12.8700	10.4635	7.6203	6.5903	58.1463

Note: over 0.40 factor loadings were shown on this table

Table 4 The Five Items Evaluated Most Important by Subjects

JAPAN	TAIWAN
No. 1	No. 22
No. 13	No. 1
No. 15	No. 14
No. 31	No. 13
No. 22	No. 18

Table 5 The Five Items Evaluated Not So Important by Subjects

JAPAN	TAIWAN
No. 17	NO. 17
No. 18	No. 6
No. 11	No. 29
No. 8	No. 11
No. . 6	No. 24

Implementing and Maintaining a Sustained Silent Reading Program in Secondary Classrooms

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Introduction

Nurturing a love for reading, thereby sustaining lifelong literacy among students, is an objective for educational institutions. Achieving this objective is urgent today, when television has virtually taken over time that students could use in reading. Compounding this problem are societal pressures that put a premium on testing and achieving good examination results, leaving little time or motivation to read. Students today are, therefore, more at risk of failing to become life-long readers than ever before (Sanacore, 1992).

Schools can, however, help to counteract the effects of societal pressures and habits of modern living that tend to discourage lifetime literacy and to deprive individuals of the corollary benefits. Students need to be given an opportunity, one that they may not have outside school hours, to read beyond basic texts, and to enrich their experience with a variety of reading materials that appeal to them. The school does its part by providing students with blocks of time in the classroom to read independently and silently, to select reading materials, and to have ownership over what they read. In this way, schools let students know that reading is an important activity and that lifelong literacy is a major instructional objective (Sanacore, 1992).

Sustained silent reading (SSR), variously termed reading for pleasure, uninterrupted or undisturbed sustained silent reading, and independent reading, has been discussed and practiced in classrooms since the 1970's (Allington, 1975; Gambrell, 1978; Hunt, 1970; McCracken, 1971). Minor variations in principles and practice exist among the propounders and practitioners of SSR. The most frequently advocated practice is one in which blocks of time are allotted within the school curriculum to allow students to silently read materials of their own choice and at their own pace in a relaxed and non-judgemental atmosphere.

Many practitioners advocate that students be given complete freedom to choose what they want to bring to class to read. In addition, practitioners advice that students not be made accountable by way of evaluation or follow-up work beyond oral discussion in order to encourage positive attitudes to reading. My experience in Asia and America, however, reveals that schools tend to view with askance programs that allow students complete freedom in the choice of learning materials and that do not require some measure of accountability. There is, therefore, a need to develop SSR programs that address the concerns of schools and, at the same time, uphold the basic principles and practices of SSR. One such program is discussed in this paper. It is termed "modified sustained silent reading" (MSSR), a program that I developed and used in the United States. The MSSR program was used with high school students of mixed ability and heritage in Virginia. These students, aged fourteen and fifteen, were ninth and tenth graders (first and second years of secondary schooling).

Implementing and Maintaining an MSSR Program

Several factors need to be established for the successful implementation and maintenance of an MSSR program. These include the logistics of organizing the program, establishing expectations and routines for MSSR periods, guiding students in selecting appropriate reading materials while allowing them ownership over the materials that they read, designing and implementing appropriate follow-up activities that are pleasant and that give students a sense of accomplishment, monitoring progress and establishing some measure of accountability in a way that does not detract from developing interest in reading. Each of these considerations will be discussed in some detail below.

Establishing Routines

For successful implementation of MSSR, teachers need to be consistent in establishing routines and expectations. Students need to know exactly what to do each time MSSR is conducted. Routines and clear expectations facilitates smooth development of each MSSR period, thereby producing a sense of well-being and relaxation that enhances pleasurable experiences in reading.

The time blocks and the days in which MSSR is conducted need to be decided on judiciously. Teachers need to take into consideration variations in student characteristics and, initially, observe the optimum time in which the majority of students in a class are able to engage in concentrated reading. The time will vary according to the interest and reading ability of students. In less proficient classes, shorter blocks of time - ten to fifteen minutes, two or three times a week - may be suitable. Classes with more proficient readers can sustain interest in reading for longer blocks - 30 to 40 minutes, or even longer in some cases - once a week. Whatever time blocks and days in which MSSR is conducted, once decided, it is important that they are consistently adhered to.

Selecting Reading Materials

Helping students to make correct choices in reading materials, and making these materials accessible and available to them are crucial to the successful implementation of MSSR. Students need to select materials according to their areas of interest (e.g. in science, sports, human situations, romance, mysteries), materials that they can relate to and establish a bond with, and materials that they can handle comfortably, without needing to struggle to understand the overt meaning. Materials can be made available to students through class collections, the English department collections, the school library, public libraries and bookstores, from publishers, and from students' friends and homes.

In MSSR, the practice is to establish guidelines concerning materials that are acceptable for class reading, while allowing students freedom to choose from among a vast pool of reading materials. Establishing guidelines about reading materials helps to give structure to the program and to satisfy the need of school to guide students, even while allowing them rope in making individual choices. A degree of uniformity concerning reading materials also needs to be maintained to facilitate follow-up activities and monitoring of student reading.

In the MSSR program that I used, students chose from materials generally classified as "novels." Short stories were acceptable as long as students read collections of them. Most of the materials that were read in MSSR comprised fiction, including young adult and adolescent novels, historical and war fiction, science fiction, sports stories, ghost and horror stories, life and death experiences, mysteries, classics, adventure and fantasy stories. Students were required to set a target for their reading. They were encouraged to aim for a minimum of one novel or book each term, reading both in class and at home. Beyond the minimum of one, they could continue reading as many as they wanted.

In helping students to select suitable books, teachers need to understand their characteristics as readers. There are, in general, three broad categories of readers: The avid readers, the luke-warm readers, and the reluctant readers. Avid readers enjoy reading, read a large number of books, and are confident about the type of books that they like. Luke-warm readers are usually capable readers who read a small number of books, but would need some prodding to read more than what they habitually do. Reluctant readers usually lack motivation to read and have developed an aversion to reading. Reluctant readers can, at times, be capable readers but, frequently, they lack reading skills.

In guiding individuals of these three groups, stategies used and objectives for learning differ. For avid readers, who are already reading a large number of books, their horizons can be expanded through informing them about the rich variety of books that they may not have read or know about. For some avid readers who concentrate on only a few authors' work, informing them about books and authors other than the ones they frequently read will broader their scope and give them an opportunity to vicariously explore a variety of life experiences through their reading. For luke-warm readers, the objective is to focus them on specific authors and books that they will find interesting and through these, kindle their interest in reading as a pleasurable activity. Once their interest in these authors and books are established, they will be motivated to seek more of these and other titles on their own to read. Luke-warm readers can develop into avid readers, given the right materials and approaches. For reluctant readers, the objective is to help them overcome their aversion to reading through giving them an opportunity to experience the postive effects of reading - that books can be exciting, fun, and enjoyable, and that they too, can succeed as readers. In this regard, it is important to identify books that are high in interest but low in demands, such as books that are easily read, that contain few characters, that are direct, filled with action, suspense, or mystery, books that grab the reader's attention from the very first page, and books that can be completed quickly.

For both lukewarm and reluctant readers, the ultimate objective is to guide them to find an author or book that will help them to make a "big breakthrough" (Grimes, 1991, p. 45) - an author or book that captures their interest so completely that they are able to overcome their negative attitudes to reading and are launched into the world of readers.

In the selection of books, wide differences in reading ability and interests among students are primary concerns. To address these differences, teachers need to be familiar with reading materials that appeal to teenagers and to be able to use people and resources, both within and outside school, to ensure that a continuous and rich supply of materials is accessible and available to students. Personal reading and browsing in libraries and bookshops are ways to become familiar with these books. In addition, teachers can expand on the experience by compiling lists of available books, using resources that are already available in the school and community. Public libraries and school libraries are usually good sources for obtaining information on books, past and present, for teenagers. Teachers can pool their resources with other teachers, within the same school or with other schools, to obtain information about what youngsters enjoy reading and to share books. Students can be asked to talk about the books that they have enjoyed. This is an effective way to be informed about books that appeal to them. Teachers can also obtain information from publishers and persons in the publishing and marketing business about suitable books. Various interest groups, reading associations, and reading journals compile lists of books suitable for various readers and purposes. These lists can be a good source of information provided the books are readily available. The bottom line in the compilation of book lists is that the books have been read and enjoyed by readers similar to the target readers.

As a further development to the book lists, it is useful to write a short summary of each book, with levels indicated, to guide students in their selection. Book blurbs written by students on books that they have enjoyed are also good sources for book summaries. Once basic lists are compiled, they can be updated whenever new information is available.

Follow-up Activities and Monitoring Reading

In MSSR, brief follow-up activities follow the reading sessions. These activities usually consist of whole class or group discussion of specific aspects of the books, i.e. sharing reader responses. A one-page written response is written when a topic is more amenable to a written response than an oral one. One objective of follow-up activities is to allow the teacher a means to monitor students' reading. Even more important are the many benefits that are attendant on discussion and writing responses. As students read, they interact with the written word, drawing psychological, emotional, and intellectual meaning from their reading. The meanings are vested in the web of connections that students make between their books and themselves and in the feelings of pain, happiness, fear, or revulsion that they experience. In helping students to develop positive attitudes and to expand their horizons, it is important to give them opportunities to discuss their reactions to the books and the meanings they hold for each reader. Through discussion and sharing with teacher and peers, their reading experiences are reinforced, clarified, and/or amplified.

In most sustained silent reading programs, students are asked to respond generally to the book or to specific pages that they have read. This is useful within limits. It allows variations in what an individual chooses to say about a book and, in principle, gives students an opportunity to voice whatever is on their minds. My experience with general sharing, however, is that the sessions usually become story-telling time in which students tell the class about the development of the plot. Story-telling, in itself, is a useful pursuit because it allows speakers a chance to become story tellers, a process that many people, both story-teller and listener, enjoy. Listeners, in addition, benefit by having access to the content of other students' books, and may, therefore, be prompted to acquire these books to read. The reading experience can, however, be extended through a balanced program of both general and focused sharing. In focused sharing, guidance is given to students. They focus on specific aspects of a book in the sharing sessions by reference to open-ended questions and topics (these are discussed in the next paragraph).

When students communicate their thoughts and feelings in general and focused sharing, it is crucial that listeners, be they the teacher or other students, respect each response as individual and special. Each response needs to be accepted as the unique product of the reader who interacts with the text from his/her individual perspectives, interpreting the text according to his/her own experiences and view of the world. It is important, therefore, in the sharing sessions, that teachers and students abide by the true spirit of sharing, and refrain from imposing a "correct" interpretation of the text or make judgemental statements about a reader's response. When teachers read a written one-page response, the same principles hold. The written response should never be evaluated for "quality" or "level of achievement." Only supportive statements that help to expand the writer's reading experience should be used by the teacher.

For focused sharing, some open-ended questions and discussion topics are listed below. I have found them useful in eliciting a variety of responses in accordance with readers' interaction with their books.

What made you choose the book? (Used at the initial stages of MSSR when students have just chosen a book.)

Your reaction to the title or chapter titles of the book.

Is there a point or issue in the book on which you agree strongly with the author? What is it and why?

On what points or issues do you disagree with the author?

Something in the book that intrigues, puzzles, or impresses you.

Do any of the characters remind you of people you know or have read about? Please give details.

Did any of the characters do something that you approve/disapprove of? What would you have done if you were the character?

How did a character deal with a problem? What other options are available to the character? What options would you have chosen?

Have you experienced something that is similar to the book? In what way is it similar? In what way is it different?

Imagine that you are a psychologist. What are some underlying motivations for the way one of the characters behaved?

Did you learn from a certain episode or character in the book? Describe it and say what you have learned.

Your evaluation of the book and/or the author.

Did something in the book arouse intense feelings in you? What is it? Why does it arouse these feelings?

Is there something you do not understand or are perplexed about? Give details.

Predict what will most likely happen next/in the next chapters. What are the clues?

Write down words, phrases, and images that strike you. Why do you notice them? Why are they there?

What do you think is the author's purpose in writing the book?

Your reaction to the descriptions of settings or scenery.

Certain passages that you especially like/dislike and why.

Anything that comes to your mind as you read.

Any reaction based on your personal experience.

Would you recommend this book to your friend? How strongly and why?

Is the conclusion what you have expected? Is it a satisfactory conclusion? If you were the author, would you have given the same/a different ending? What would your conclusion be?

Towards the end of term when students would have completed reading at least one book, several follow-up activities can be assigned. End-of-term activities help students consolidate their reading experiences and allow them a chance to express their overall responses to their books.

One of the activities that I used with my classes was writing book blurbs. Students were encouraged to write a book blurb whenever they completed reading a book. They were required, however, to write a minimum of one blurb each term on the book that they read. Included in each blurb, was a short summary of the book, a statement recommending the book for specific readers, and a rating of the book on a scale of 1 to 10 (10 being the highest rating and 1 the lowest). Books that had high ratings were added to the book lists and book summaries that the teacher had compiled (discussed under section on "Selecting Reading Materials").

Students also did "hype booktalks" on books that they were particularly enthusiastic about. These booktalks were aimed at making listeners so interested in the books that they would want to rush out and get them. In hype booktalks, the speakers imagined that they were booksellers whose livelihood depended on selling books. Their purpose was to sell the book to the rest of the class. Only positive aspects of the book were emphasized and endings were omitted to leave listeners in suspense so that they would be motivated to read the books to find out.

Students were given a "Reading Record" to keep brief records of the books that they had completed each term. The reading record consisted of a form on which space sufficient for recording two books was provided. On the form was the student's name, the title and author of each book read, the pages of the book that the student read, and a few lines for the reader's response to each book. The reading record was a useful way of helping students keep track of their reading and for the teacher to monitor the number of books each student reads.

In MSSR, students are accountable in a non-threatening and individualized way. The whole process of reading, from selection of books and following routines, to silent reading, to follow-up activities, is monitored on an individualized and ongoing basis. The teacher keeps an anecdotal record with a checklist of his/her observations. At the end of term, an overall participation grade is given. This grade is based on an observation of how well the student participated during MSSR and not on how much he/she has achieved or how good his/her work is. The anecdotal record and checklist can include the following: Bringing reading materials to class, getting on task, active reading, active in giving reader response, supportive of other's responses, completing reading records, completing written work.

Conclusion

MSSR is based on principles and practices of a general sustained silent reading program, with modifications made to accommodate the need for structure and accountability needed in school curricula. This paper discusses in detail what classroom teachers can do to implement a successful MSSR program. It is hoped that teachers can use some of the ideas, adapt them to their own classrooms and students, and develop other viable programs for SSR.

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CONFUSION OF SOUNDS

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English enjoys a special place in India. It is not treated or received as a foreign language. Owing to the historical background its status in most parts of India is that of the second language. In our part i.e. Central India, Hindi - the National Language is prevalent and accepted as the first language in official dealings as well as in many academic institutions. But the number of persons desirous of joining the communities who freely and efficiently use English as the means of communication is on perpetual increase.

With the disappearance of missionary schools where British, Irish and Canadian teachers used to teach a major change has been observed among the learners of English. This change is related to the area of spoken English. The students who avail schooling in convents (schools) are taught by the teachers who are well - trained to use English as the medium of instruction but usually they also suffer from mothertongue pull. The impact of the teachers on the learners in their formative years leads to wrong speaking habit particularly in accent. The students who are educated in the schools where the medium of instruction is Hindi (in some cases it is Marathi or Urdu in our state - Madhya Pradesh) the hurdles are plenty and of various types. The result is unintelligibility of their speech. This defeats the very basic purpose and function of language.

Once they enter the college we, the college teachers, find it very difficult to erase the wrong language habits and then to implant the new and correct ones. We decided to select sixty students of First Year [illegible] college level to inculcate in them the specific correct language habits in spoken English and we chose segmental rather than suprasegmental aspects for the reasons which will be made clear in the course of the paper. All of them had 10 + 2 i.e. twelve years of schooling before entering college.

Thirty students were convent educated and formed stream ' A '. Their accent of English is reasonably good. Most of them spoke English with ease and fluency. It has been noticed that almost all such students succeed in acquiring quite correct, though not perfect, rhythm and intonation pattern of English. They also use the weak forms unconsciously but fail in one area without being aware of their failure. Their failure is in distinguishing between plosive and fricative sounds.

It is a well - known fact that Hindi and many other Indian languages are rich in plosives while English is rich in fricatives. Hindi has sixteen plosives while English has only six plosives (and nine fricatives). Then in Hindi the aspirated plosives are (eight in number) different sounds and in English they are all allophones of the same phonemes - (only three voiceless plosives / p /, / t /, / k / are aspirated).

The common weakness of any learner of any new language is to replace the sounds of the new language with the nearest sounds of the language he already knows. It is a matter of common knowledge that when children are admitted to schools they are accustomed to use their mothertongue quite fluently (in our state it is Hindi or Marathi in the majority of cases). Therefore the first language interference is very prominent in the use of fricative sounds of English. Our students invariably suffer from the tendency of replacing English fricative sounds with the nearest plosive sounds in Hindi.

The second group of thirty made stream ' B ' who had come from the schools where the medium of instruction is Hindi. these students were weak in the entire area of spoken English. Their only plus point was that they were very enthusiastic about improving their pronunciation. It was needless to drag them into the fineries of plosives and fricatives. So we decided to begin with some vowel sounds which they found difficult to articulate due to their absence in Hindi.

The details of the project begin here with the description of practical work that we did with the first category of learners. This group of thirty students opting for these sessions was divided into two batches of fifteen. The two batches were given practice every alternate day for six weeks. Thus batch ' 1 ' worked with us on Monday, Wednesday and Friday and batch ' 2 ' on Tuesday, Thursday and Saturday. One period consisted of one hour. The aids used were tape recorder / player, cassettes, books with passages for reading and minor material like list of words and sentences made by ourselves for this specific purpose. Continuous monitoring was done by one of us.

Before the actual drilling began we explained that while producing a speech sound two things are most important :--

/1/ The place from where the sound is produced i.e. the speech organs involved in its articulation and ;

/2/ The manner in which air is held, pushed or released from the mouth.

Without entering into the technicalities of terms like plosives and fricatives it was made clear by demonstrating how certain sounds in Hindi are articulated by complete stop of air followed by its sudden release. It was shown how these sounds become different when they are produced with partial closure allowing a narrow passage to the air to escape through it with audible friction.

Once the notion of syllable and stress was explained to them they did not have much difficulty in aspirated plosives because in Hindi all the plosives have aspirated variety. The chart of plosives in Hindi is given here so that the oral drilling given to the learners becomes clear at the first sight.

PLOSIVES	ASPIRATED VARIETY AS DIFFERENT PHONEMES	VOLICELESS / VOICED	PLACE OF ARTICULATION
1 /p/ VOICELESS	2 [pʰ]	VOICED	BILABIAL
3 /b/ VOICELESS	4 [bʰ]	VOICED	BILABIAL
5 /ʈ/ VOICELESS	6 [ʈʰ]	VOICED	RETROFLEX
7 /ɖ/ VOICELESS	8 [ɖʰ]	VOICED	RETROFLEX
9 /k/ VOICELESS	10 [kh]	VOICED	VELAR
11 /g/ VOICELESS	12 [gh]	VOICED	VELAR
13 /t̪/ VOICELESS	14 [t̪ʰ]	VOICED	DENTAL
15 /d̪/ VOICELESS	16 [d̪ʰ]	VOICED	DENTAL

NOTE : The symbols used are those of the International Phonetic Association (I.P.A.).

The English fricative sounds / θ / as in thought and / ð / as in that are articulated from the same place as that in Hindi i.e. they are ' Dental '. But their stricture in Hindi, unlike in English, is plosive and Indian learners very rarely pronounce these two sounds correctly. Then [t̪ʰ] unlike English / θ / is voiced and [d̪] in Hindi is voiceless unlike English [ð] which is voiced.

Our students were given regular speaking and listening practice. They were asked to repeat the words beginning with these sounds. While articulating the first sound of the word they were directed to touch the tip of the tongue to the upper front teeth in such a way that some passage is left open from the sides for the air and the tongue is visible to the teachers. The words chosen for the drilling of /θ/ sound in the initial state are :--

Thousand	**Theocracy**
Threaten	**Therapeutic**
Threshold	**Thermal**
Thrill	**Throughout**
Thank	**Thunder**
Theatre	**Thyroid**
Theme	**Thrive etc.**

The sound / θ / occurs in combination with as many vowel sounds as possible in the words selected here. Afterwards words with /θ/ sound in medial and final positions were added to the list. In the oral drill of / ð / sound, the common words were chosen. Some of them are :--

INITIAL POSITION	MEDIAL POSITION	FINAL POSITION
That	**Withal**	**With**
These	**Whether**	**Seethe**
This	**Wither**	**Soothe**
Themselves	**Smother**	**Smooth**
Therefore	**Motherhood**	**Breathe**
Though	**Bother**	
Those	**Feather**	

It was observed during the practice sessions that many learners pronounced [d̪ʰ] in the initial position of the word this. This particular word required more practice to be acquired correctly.

Another major difficulty that the learners experienced was in the correct articulation of / t / and / d /. The faulty prounciation was the result of using a different place of articulation. As is visible in the chart of Hindi plosives / ʈ / and / ɖ / are retroflex while in English they are alveolar. Regular practice removed this speech fault. Words with these sounds in initial, medial and final positions were chosen for oral drill.

Then the flaw in articulation of / f / was paid attention to. In Hindi, only the aspirated variety of / p / i.e. [p^h] is there so the learners used [p^h] in place of / f /. Again we, the teachers, demonstrated how [p^h] is produced by closing the lips completely and opening them suddenly, and how / f /, which is a labio - dental sound, is spoken by leaving a little passage for the airstream to escape and while doing so the lower lip is active making contact with the upper teeth. Again the best drill was possible by selecting first the pairs of words beginning with / p / and / f /. / p / in all these minimal pairs is aspirated :

Pickle	**Fickle**
Pancy	**Fancy**
Pan	**Fan**
Pair	**Fair**
Pea	**Fee**
Pall	**Fall**
Pence	**Fence**
Pale	**Fail**
Pile	**File etc.**

For the training in the judgement of the two distinct sounds [p^h] and / f / words with one / p / and one [p^h] sounds were selected during the second phase. Some of them are :--

Paper	**Pupil**
Purpose	**Puppet**
Pumpkin	**Pup**

Purport	**Puppy**
Purple	**Pupa** **etc.**

The learners required intensive practice to replace the Hindi plosives [d̪ʰ] and [t̪] with / d / and / t / respectively while speaking English. They were also given practice in using / g / instead of Hindi aspirated variety [gʰ] in words like :--

Ghastly	**Ghee**
Ghost	**Gherkin**
Ghostly	**Ghetto** **etc.**

The confusion was natural because of the spelling. The initial /g/ is followed immediately by the letter h and as a result the learners cho~~o~~se the readily available aspirated variety in Hindi.

From the second week, reading exercise was given regularily. The passages chosen for the purpose have a number of words with these sounds. After the first three weeks, 24 learners adopted the correct sounds while speaking the words in isolation. In the last two weeks they were given the practice in connected speech. We selected and often wrote sentences having these sounds, i.e. :--

/1/ **Th**ank you **f**or all **th**ese **th**ings.

/2/ Don't be **f**urious, have **f**ait**h** in me.

/3/ I **th**ink he will **th**row bo**th** **th**ese **th**ermometers out of **th**e window.

/4/ He could not brea**th**e **f**reely.

/5/ He made beauti**f**ul **f**ans wit**h** **f**ea**th**ers.

/6/ Therefore my mother asked them not to bother about it any more.

/7/ Then come and help this blind boy to complete his thesis.

/8/ It was a ghastly sight and no theory in the world could provide any therapy for it.

/9/ The fat lady was shouting breathlessly because a thief had snatched her purse.

/10/ All those gentlemen belonged to the theological society and all of them wore thick glasses.

At the end of the sixth week all the learners, except three, could articulate these sounds as well as we do.

The second category of learners was also divided into two batches of fifteen. The main aim in dividing both the categories into two smaller groups was to instill in them competitive spirit. Though ten is the ideal number for the sessions of oral drill, we had to resort to fifteen owing to the scarcity of facilities.

To correct the faulty language habits in the articulation of vowel sounds is more difficult. These learners, who have come from schools with Hindi as the medium of instruction, could not pronounce :--

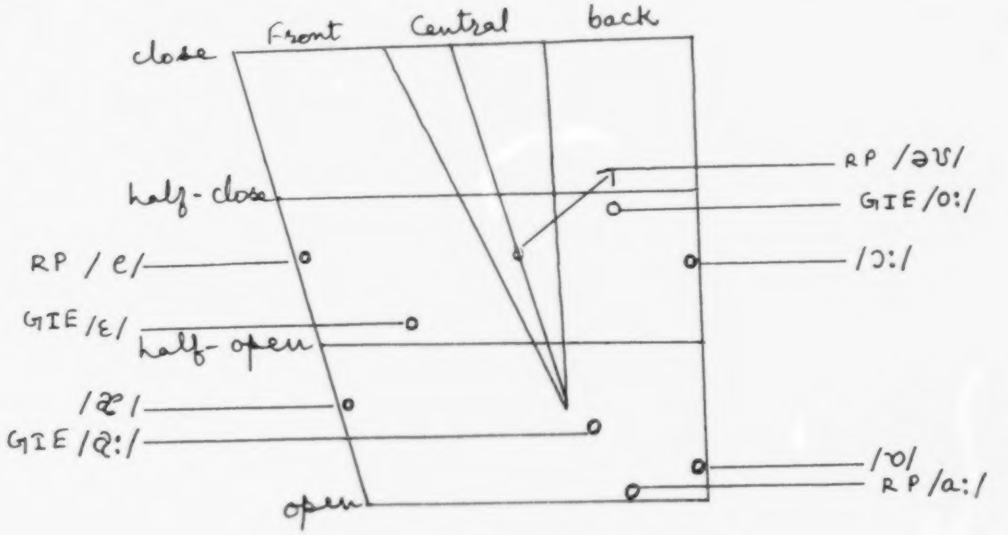
A. /æ/ as in glad and use / e / in place of it, or / ɛ / of GIE.

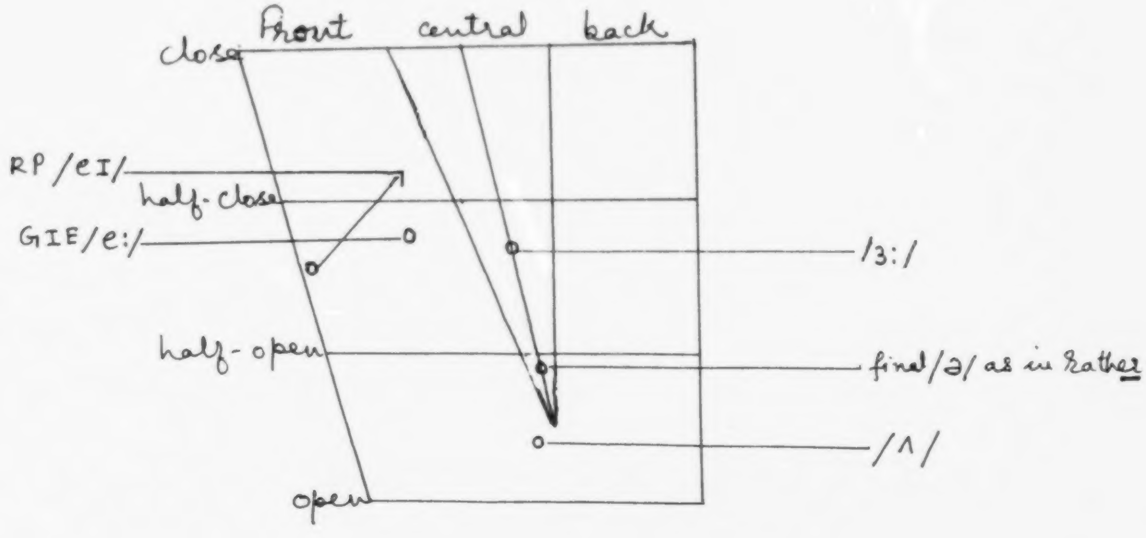
B. /ɒ/ as in pot and /ɔː/ as in horse, and often used /æː/ in their place.

C. They used only one /ə/ sound for /ɜː/, /ʌ / and /ə/ in all positions. In the words like horse and bird they used / r / with the vowel sounds in place of the long vowels /ɔː/ and /ɜː/. Thus they pronounced /hɒs/ and /bəd/ instead of /hɔːs/ and /bɜːd/.

D. They replaced the diphthongs /əʊ/ and /eɪ/ with /oː/ and /eː/ changing them into a variety of long monophthongs alien to English, but very much accepted in General Indian English.

Their oral drill and listening exercise began with long monophthongs. It will be convenient to have a cursory glance at the diagrams to get a general idea of the difference in articulating various vowel sounds in Hindi and English which create confusion among the learners.


close
Front
Central
back
half-close
RP /e/
GIE /ɛ/
half-open
/æ/
GIE /ɑː/
open
RP /əʊ/
GIE /oː/
/ɔː/
/ɒ/
RP /ɑː/


Front
central
back
close
RP /eɪ/
half-close
GIE /eː/
/ɜː/
half-open
final /ə/ as in father
/ʌ/
open

The two batches received the practice in the manner similar to that of the learners of stream (A).

Recording the speech of the learners of both the streams was a regular feature of the sessions. Replay of the recorded speech made them aware of their mistakes.

To improve the articulation of vowel sounds, a long list of words, some of which were minimal pairs, was made. Some of them are :--

/1/	**Cot**	**Cought**	
	Hot	**Bought**	
	Pot	**Clock**	
	Dot	**Horse**	
	Got	**Corn**	
/2/	**Pet**	**Pat**	
	Then	**Than**	
	Send	**Sand**	
	Bend	**Band**	
	Bed	**Bad**	
/3/	**Last**	**Lost**	
	Calf	**Cough**	
	Far	**For**	
	Farce	**Force**	
/4/	**But**	**Bird**	**About**
	Cut	**Curd**	**Across**
	Hut	**Hurt**	**Amount**
	Gull	**Girl**	**Against**

In the second phase we introduced and explained the glides /əʊ/ and /eɪ/ and insisted on their used in place of / o:/ and / e: /. To enable them to distinguish between the sounds / ɒ / (or / ɔ: /) and /əʊ/ a simple exercise was deviced. It consisted of oral drill of the pairs of words like :--

Goat	**Got**	
Coat	**Caught**	
Close	**Clause**	
Cloak	**Clock**	
Fore	**For**	**etc.**

To make them aware of the difference between the monophthong / e / and the diphthong /eɪ/ a number of minimal pairs were chosen. A few of them are given below :--

Gate	**Get**	
Late	**Let**	
Tale	**Tell**	
Fail	**Fell**	
Bail	**Bell**	
Fade	**Fed**	**etc.**

Simple words like so, no, go and take, make, May, lay, fate, hate were repeated again and again.

The number of the home tasks assigned to the learners of stream (B) was larger. The learners of both the streams were persuaded to take out the relevant words from the dictionary and practice the pronunciation. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of

Current English (A. S. Hornby) is already prescribed in their syllabus for English Language.

The results of the learners of stream (B) were not very encouraging even at the end of third week. Some of them considered their wrong speech habits as incorrigible, but most of them were desperate to get rid of these habits. The thrill of knowing something more than others in the situation similar to theirs, motivated them to overcome hesitation. In the last two weeks they improved a lot, and 90 % of them can now pronounce correctly the vowel sounds which they were unable to, in the beginning of these sessions. Here too, we took the help of cassettes. The best cassette available for this stream is the one produced by CIEFL, Hyderabad.

At the end of the sixth week two sessions were arranged to evaluate the progress of the learners of both the streams. No doubt, the results were not 100 %. But our only contention is this that in a short period of six weeks, considerable success can be obtained in English language learning by paying individual attention to the learners and motivating them to achieve the target. Once they are made aware of their weak areas, and conscious and systematic efforts are made, they can easily and confidently overcome the barriers in way of learning English.

This paper may help the learners of English from any part of the world whose language is richer in plosives than in fricatives. Our modest endeavour has been to provide concrete suggestions to such learners. The obstructions in way of articulating and acquiring correct vowel sounds in English appear to be invincible for grown up speakers, but again, a little conscious effort may defeat these obstructions. This gives hope to all the learners who cannot individually afford expensive audio - visual aids and who are past the so called age of language aptitude and active linguistic ability.

The teachers of the poor and developing countries need not be pessimistic about their learners at any stage of education. Determination and efforts in right direction helped us achieve our goal with minimum aids. Teachers in any poor nation can streamline their efforts, reshape and design the adequate material according to the needs of their learners as we have done. The deplorable condition of spoken English in India, and nations like India, shouldn't make them light - headed and heavy - hearted.

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WHY SOME CHILDREN HAVE PROBLEMS IN LEARNING TO READ AND SPELL IN ENGLISH

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In this paper I shall examine some of the factors which have been shown to be important in early literacy learning and which may present problems for some children. I shall then focus on some of the difficulties children may encounter in becoming phonologically aware and why phonological awareness is so important in mapping the written word onto the spoken word and vice-versa. Next, I shall discuss two studies that I have carried out in Western Australia, the first of which looks at children who have problems in spelling. The second study is longitudinal and examines the development of phonological awareness, verbal working memory, reading and spelling over the first two years of school. Finally, having shown the importance of phonological awareness to both reading and spelling, I shall outline some suggestions for helping children become phonologically aware. It is hoped that there will be implications for teaching reading and writing to learners of English as a second language, who are not familiar with an alphabetic system.

What is important in learning to read and spell in English?

When we examine what is involved in learning to read and spell in English it is not surprising that some children have problems. What is surprising is that so many 5- and 6-year-old children begin to learn these complex tasks so easily. In order to be able to read and spell children must have knowledge of certain concepts. They must understand some of the conventions of print, such as that print runs from left to right, that it runs down the page and that the left-hand page precedes the right hand page. Marie Clay (1985) has outlined some of the most important conventions and has devised a test to measure children's knowledge of them. Further, Gordon Wells (1985) has shown that young children who have had little access to print and have not been read to in the home are not able to identify these conventions and are less likely to experience success in school.

There is also a great deal of evidence to show that **metalinguistic awareness** is particularly important in the early development of literacy. Metalinguistic awareness may be defined as "deliberate reflection on language" and some forms of it have been shown to be essential for early literacy learning. However, many children who begin school do not have the levels of metalinguistic awareness necessary for reading and spelling. Often they have not been required to reflect on language before coming to school, but when they begin reading instruction they are required to focus on language as an object of thought. They have to be able to talk about *words*, *sentences*, *sounds* and so on, none of which have been particularly important in their everyday preschool life.

In everyday life we use language to communicate and normally we don't deliberately reflect on its structure. We communicate our ideas in speech to other people and we extract their meaning without focusing on the sounds, the order of the words, or the particular words used. In other words language is 'transparent' like a window: the glass lets us see the view; speech lets us understand the meaning. However, we can deliberately focus on the glass if we choose to do so. Maybe it has a defect or is dirty. So with speech, we can choose to reflect on the sounds, on the grammar, on the particular words used. A strange accent or unusual use of words may cause us to pay attention to the language itself. Cazden (1976) has used this glass analogy when she suggests that by reflecting on language in this way we make the usually 'transparent' forms of language 'opaque'.

Some forms of metalinguistic awareness which appear to be particularly important when children begin to read and write are *word*, *syntactic* and *phonological* awareness. Word awareness involves knowing that words can be separated from their referents and that speech sequences can be separated into individual words; syntactic awareness involves knowing about the grammar of the language; and phonological awareness involves being able to recognise the sound units of language and to manipulate them. In this paper I shall focus on the importance of phonological awareness. This has been seen as essential for mapping written words onto spoken words through application of the alphabetic principle. Marion Milton is presenting a paper at this conference on the importance of syntactic awareness. Word awareness, in the form of segmenting speech sequences into individual words, appears to be necessary for both phonological and syntactic awareness. Suggestions for helping children to acquire word awareness are given at the end of this paper.

The importance of phonological awareness for reading and spelling

There have been many studies into phonological awareness in the last 20 years (see Adams, 1990) and there is overwhelming evidence that phonological awareness is most important in the early stages of reading and spelling. Further, the research has not been confined to English speakers, but has been conducted on speakers of several European languages which use the Roman alphabet in their writing system eg., French, Portuguese, Swedish, Danish, Spanish and Italian.

If children are to develop reading and spelling skills they have to learn the correspondences between the sounds of the language (phonemes) and the letters of the alphabet (graphemes). In order to do this they have to be able to focus their attention on sounds. However, children usually read their first words by association. These words are often print in the environment, such as *MacDonalds*, and they are learnt as wholes, by the shape or the colour or the location of the word. Children may extend these sight words to their own and their friends' names, to individual words on a shopping list, or to particular words in a favourite storybook. Since many of these early words are learnt on the basis of shape, as children learn to recognise more words, each extra word becomes more difficult to recognise as the word shapes become more alike. It is estimated that children may learn up to about 40 words in this way before they have to use some sort of analytic strategy (Gough & Hillinger, 1980).

Eventually, in order to learn new words, children have to become able to break words up into sounds so that they can take advantage of the alphabetic system, in which the 44 or so phonemes of the English language are represented by the 26 letters of the alphabet. Without this understanding, children have to learn each word individually as a picture. Liberman, Shankweiler and Liberman (1989) have described some of the difficulties which must be faced in understanding the alphabetic principle. They discuss the way that words convey meaning, but are made up of meaningless phonological segments. Words differ from each other in their internal structure. Thus the word *cat* differs from the word *bat* in the first phoneme, from the word *cut* in the second phoneme and from the word *can* in the last phoneme. It can be seen that, in order to distinguish quickly and easily between these words in reading and writing, it is necessary to be able focus on individual phonemes.

However, breaking words up into individual phonemes is extremely difficult, as we can't hear them. When we hear the word *cat* we only hear one sound. The adjoining phonemes overlap so that the *a* is overlapped by the *c* at the beginning and by the *t* at the end and the whole word is pronounced as one syllable. This overlapping of phonemic segments is called coarticulation and is not normally a problem for listeners and speakers of a language, but poses a problem for beginning readers and writers. Since phonemes themselves are abstractions, when we break up words into what we call *sounds*, these sounds are different from those heard in the word itself. We can break the word cat into *c-a-t*, but these three syllables, *kuh-ah-tuh* sound very different from the word *cat*.

Thus it can be seen that, whilst phonological awareness is most important in mapping written words onto spoken words in spelling and in mapping spoken words onto written words in reading, acquiring phonological awareness may not be an easy task for children.

I shall now discuss two studies of the relationship between phonological awareness and literacy, the first of which examines the phonological skills of poor spellers.

The phonological problems of children who are poor spellers

The purpose of this study was to examine the spelling processes of a group of children who were poor spellers (Rohl & Tunmer, 1988). Grade 5 children (aged 10 years), who were very poor spellers, were matched on spelling ability and hearing vocabulary with average Grade 3 spellers (aged 8 years) and good Grade 2 spellers (aged 7 years). They were then given a test of phonological awareness, in which they were required to segment two-, three-, four-, and five-phoneme nonsense words into all of their phonemes. They were also given a spelling test which contained words of the following four types:

nonsense words (eg., *teb, homselb*);
regular words (eg., *ten, himself*);
ambiguous words (eg., *town, teacher*);
exception words (eg., *yacht, aching*).

The results of the study showed that, as expected, all the children made more spelling errors on the exception words as there was not a one-to-one correspondence between phonemes and graphemes and some of the letter combinations in these words were unusual. Further, the poor spellers were as good as the younger children at spelling ambiguous and exception words. However, they were significantly worse at spelling the regular and nonsense words which had perfect one-to-one correspondences between phonemes and graphemes. This suggests that the poor spellers were not as able as the younger spellers to take advantage of the phonetic regularity of these words. Moreover, when we looked at their spelling errors we found that they were less phonetically accurate, again suggesting a problem with the phonological properties of words. Examples of their errors are *sprat* for *tramp, albtd* for *adult* and *scslysil* for *scarcely*.

Not only did the poor spellers show problems with the phonological structure of words in their spellings, but they also did not score as highly as the younger spellers on the phonemic segmentation test. They performed at a significantly lower level than both groups of younger spellers in segmenting words which contained four or five phonemes and at a significantly lower level than the Grade 2 spellers in segmenting words which contained three phonemes. Taken together, these results suggest that the poor spellers in the study had quite distinct phonological problems.

The development of phonological awareness and its relationship with early reading and spelling

Whilst the study which has just been discussed looked only at the relationship between phonological awareness and spelling, the second study which I shall discuss looks at the relationship between phonological awareness, spelling and reading over the first 2 years of full-time schooling. It was a 2-year longitudinal study of 76 initially prereading children. Previous longitudinal studies have shown that phonological awareness predicts reading and spelling (eg., Bradley & Bryant, 1985; Tunmer, Herriman, & Nesdale, 1988). Of particular interest in this study was the issue of whether phonological awareness still predicts reading and spelling once the effects of verbal working memory have been statistically controlled, since it is possible that the memory demands of phonological awareness tasks could account for the observed relationship between phonological awareness and reading and spelling (Tunmer & Rohl, 1991).

Phonological awareness was measured by the following tasks:

> Rhyme and alliteration (*Pig, pin lot. Which word doesn't belong because it doesn't* ***start*** *with the same sound?*
>
> *Face bed head. Which word doesn't belong because it doesn't* ***end*** *with the same sound?)*
>
> Phonemic segmentation (*Ig. Can you tap once for each sound in ig?)*
>
> Phoneme deletion (*Cold. Can you say cold without the c?*)

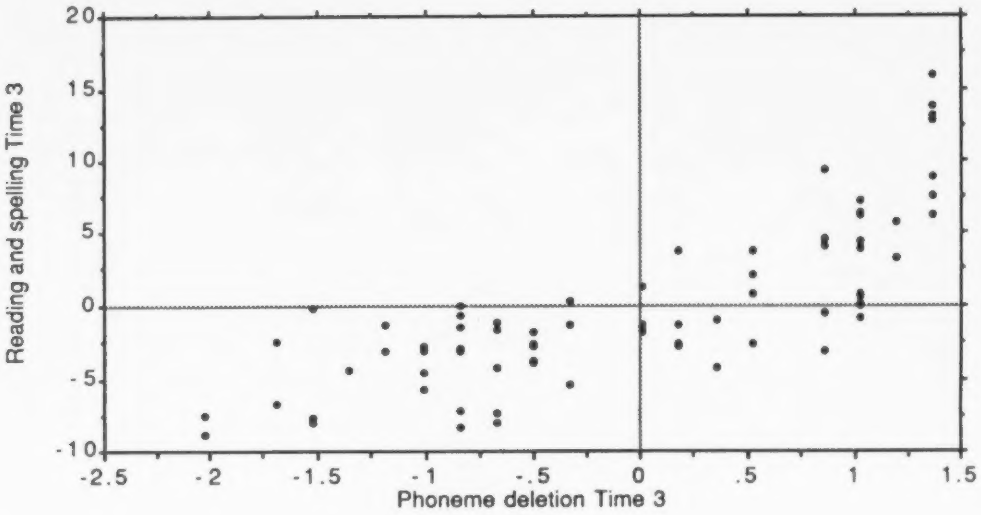
Verbal working memory was measured by tests of letter, word and sentence repetition. The children were required to repeat sequences of letters and words exactly as spoken by the experimenter or in reverse sequence. They were also required to repeat sentences, which were either semantically appropriate or semantically anomalous.

There were three testing phases. The children were initially tested during the first few weeks of Grade 1 (Time 1), when they were 5 1/2 years old and only those who were unable to read any words at all, or those who could read only one word on Clay's (1985) *Ready to Read Word Test* were included in the study. This was the criterion for prereading. It is acknowledged, however, that although the children were not able to recognise words many of them would have had some emergent concepts of reading and spelling. The second phase (Time 2) was 9 months later at the end of Grade 1, and the third phase (Time 3) took place after a further 9 months, in the latter part of Grade 2. Phonological awareness and verbal working memory were tested at Times 1 and 2, although not all phonological awareness tests were administered at all testing times; reading and spelling were tested at Times 2 and 3; and hearing vocabulary was tested at Time 1, in order to control for the effects of verbal intelligence.

The results showed that many prereading children were able to achieve success on the test of rhyme and alliteration, as their mean score was 9/15. However, the prereading children were not able to perform the phonemic segmentation test. Their mean score was 5/20, no child scored 20 and 27 children scored 0, which suggests that this is a task which could not be performed by those children who had no word reading skills. There was also evidence in the study to show that once children had begun to read and write, phonological awareness was necessary for reading and spelling. In Figure 1 it can be seen that all the good readers and spellers were also able to do well on a phonological awareness task. There were no children who had low scores on the phonological awareness task and high scores for reading and spelling. However, phonological awareness was not **sufficient** for reading and spelling as there were some children who had high scores on the phonological awareness task, but low scores for reading and spelling.

Figure 1

Scatterplot Showing the Relationship between Phonological Awareness and Reading and Spelling in Grade 2 (Standardised z-Scores)

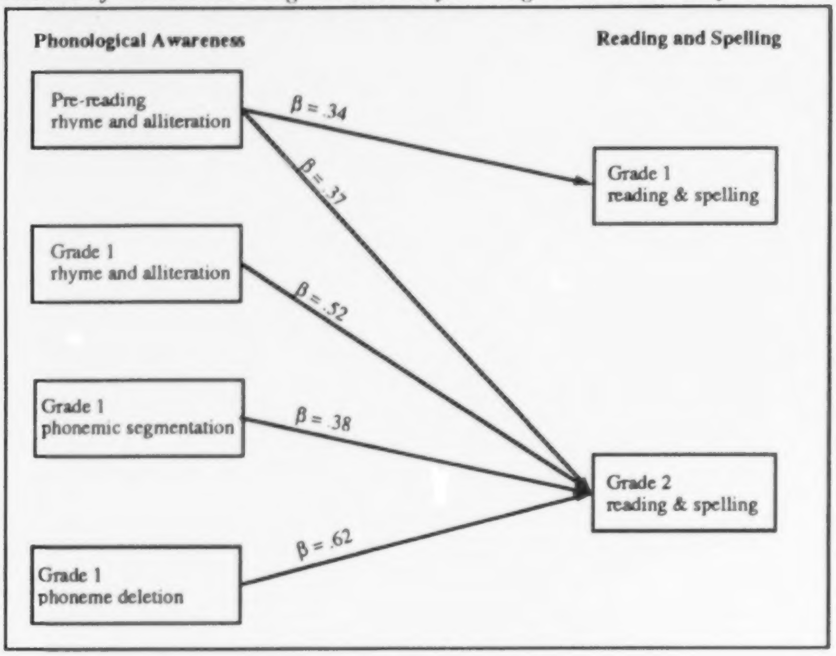


The results of hierarchical multiple regression analyses, in which age and vocabulary were statistically controlled, showed that prereading awareness of rhyme and alliteration made a significant contribution to reading and spelling in Grades 1 and 2. Moreover, Grade 1 rhyme and alliteration, phonemic segmentation and phoneme deletion, strongly predicted reading and spelling in Grade 2. These results are shown in Figure 2.

Further multiple regression analyses were run in which the effects of all verbal working memory tests were also controlled. In all cases but one, phonological awareness continued to predict reading and spelling. The only relationship which did not remain significant with verbal working memory controlled was that between prereading rhyme and alliteration and Grade 2 reading and spelling.

Figure 2

Results of hierarchical regression analyses - age and vocabulary controlled


Phonological Awareness
Reading and Spelling
Pre-reading rhyme and alliteration
Grade 1 rhyme and alliteration
Grade 1 phonemic segmentation
Grade 1 phoneme deletion
Grade 1 reading & spelling
Grade 2 reading & spelling
β = .34
β = .37
β = .52
β = .38
β = .62

NB. The numbers on the lines refer to *Beta*-weights.

This study then confirms the results of several previous studies which have shown phonological awareness to be a predictor of later reading and spelling. It further shows that phonological awareness, for the most part, continues to predict reading and spelling even when the effects of verbal working memory are controlled. It therefore seems important that young children have instruction in phonological awareness so that they can achieve success in early reading and spelling. This instruction need not be formal, particularly in the early stages, and many of the strategies which follow are part of preschool and primary school practice in Western Australia and many other places.

Suggestions for helping children become phonologically aware

Below are some suggestions to help children develop phonological awareness. These have been adapted from Rohl and Milton (in press); further ideas may be found in *The Reading Teacher* (Griffith & Olson, 1992; Yopp, 1992). Whilst most of these strategies have been developed for use with young children, it is hoped that some may be useful for older learners of English as a second language who have problems in using an alphabetic system.

Word awareness

Word awareness, which is necessary for both syntactic and phonological awareness, can be developed by playing a game in which children clap their hands once for each word in a sentence or a rhyme. Singing simple rhymes also helps children focus on individual words. Some early childhood computer programs, especially those which make use of a concept keyboard, are also helpful in teaching young children to understand that words are individual units of language.

Rhyming and Alliteration

Nursery rhymes and other rhymes should be an important part of early childhood programs. Games such as *I Spy* can help to promote awareness of the first sounds in words. There is a wealth of rhyme and alliteration in big books such as *Shoes from Grandpa* (Fox, 1990). Children's attention should be focussed on words which rhyme or start with a certain sound when they come across them in shared book reading. Class made books can repeat the rhyming and alliteration patterns of shared books. Parents can be encouraged to help develop rhyme and alliteration in songs, games and stories.

Say-it-Slowly

Awareness of individual sounds in words is also important. Children can be helped to develop this ability by being shown how to say words very slowly and to listen for the individual sounds. An effective way to do this is to introduce the children to a puppet who says words *v-e-r-y s-l-ow-l-y*. It is best to begin with words which are easy to stretch, such as *m-a-n* or *z-oo*. Notice that some sounds are represented by more than one letter. It is important to segment words by sounds, not letters.

Representing Sounds with Tokens

In order that young children may have concrete representations of sounds within words, they can use counters to represent individual phonemes. As they become skilled at this they can gradually replace the counters by letters (Clay, 1985).

Sounds and Letters

Once children are able to break up short words they can be introduced to the letters which they contain. Children can make new words which start or end with the same sounds. Oral segmentation of words, combined with physical manipulation of letters to make similar sounding words, is a very effective way of teaching young children and older poor readers to read and to spell (Bryant & Bradley, 1985). Iversen and Tunmer (in press) have shown that Clay's widely used *Reading Recovery* program may be even more effective when a word analogy strategy is introduced. For example, after the word *and* was made with letters and pronounced by the child, the teacher made the words *sand*, *hand*, and *band*. Control of the task was gradually handed over from the teacher to the child.

Invented Spelling

Invented spelling is a good way of developing phonological awareness in young children. Children have to focus their attention on the individual sounds in words. Adults can encourage children to use this strategy by saying, "You try the word. What sound do you think it starts with? What sound comes next? What letters are you going to use to make that sound?" Children may use booklets in which they try out spellings of words they want to write before asking an adult for the conventional spelling. Dictation may also be used to help beginning writers become aware of all the sounds in words. The words need to be pronounced very slowly and carefully and a short sentence is sufficient to begin with.

Spelling Routines

For young children and older children experiencing difficulty with spelling, spelling routines should include a **sound** element. A suggested routine for learning new words is: *Look at the word, Say the word, Listen to the sounds, Feel the sounds in your mouth, Cover the word, Write the word, Check the word.*

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Support Teachers for Students with Reading Difficulties—Australian Research

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Abstract

Surveys of support teachers in Australian schools have shown that it is possible to assist students who experience difficulties in learning to read in a variety of ways. This paper reports on the successes and problems experienced by support teachers who not only provide direct remedial teaching, but also consult with classroom teachers, advise parents and set up peer-tutoring programs.

Support Teachers for Students with Reading Difficulties—Australian Research

The evidence to be discussed in this paper is drawn from three major sources. The first is a study of 61 remedial teachers in the state of Queensland, Australia fifteen years ago (Elkins, 1978). The second is another Queensland study conducted eleven years later (Neate, 1989) which has sufficient similarity to the earlier study to enable comparisons to be made. The third is a recent study conducted for the New South Wales Department of School Education (Elkins, Ashman, van Kraayenoord, & Christensen, 1992).

I propose to focus on the roles of resource staff who have been termed remedial, resource or support teachers at various times. Indeed the very label and the changes which have occurred over the past 20 years suggest an underlying disquiet with the various roles these specialists have attempted to fill. In brief, the labels and dominant roles can be summarized as follows.

Remedial—The specialist is responsible for diagnosing reading and related difficulties, deciding on the educational intervention needed and in most cases, carrying it out.

This is apparently efficient, but unless the intervention occurs outside regular school hours, it may detract from learning opportunities. Unfortunately, those persons offering out-of-school tuition have usually been untrained cramming coaches rather than specialists with understanding of the reading process and how to assist students who may have additional psychological problems.

Another problem with the traditional model of remedial teaching is that education systems have not been able to train and employ remedial teachers in sufficient numbers to enable them to provide an adequate service. Thus students have been prioritized for receipt of services and often allowed only a fixed quantum of assistance, irrespective of whether they had been brought to a level where they could function independently in the classroom.

Resource—The resource teacher label became common when the role of the remedial reading specialist was expanded to include working with the classroom teacher to help them provide in-class programs.

While this offered one way of meeting the needs of more students, it further reduced the opportunity for direct assistance to students by the specialist. It also raised new problems of negotiation with class teachers, who had to acknowledge that they needed help with failing students.

Support—By the time that the term *Support* became commonly used to describe the specialist role, the locus for assisting students was firmly the regular classroom, with the role being that of consultant, working in collaborative, mediating or expert mode.

This model further reduces the chance of direct instruction in one to one situations for students with severe problems, and demands new skills of the support teacher and new attitudes (and skills) from classroom teachers.

Views of the specialist's role

A summary of perceptions of the specialist's role by Remedial, Support and Classroom teachers is presented in Table 1. Data are drawn from Neate (1989) with some comparison data from Elkins (1978).

Table 1. Role Perceptions of Remedial, Support and Classroom Teachers

	Component of Role 1976 Remedial Teacher %	Component of Role 1989 Support Teacher %	Component of Role Classroom Teacher %
Teach the learning disabled child including integration into the regular class	18.0	10.0	10.0
Help the slow learner in the regular class	–	10.0	10.0
Not a service appropriate for the mentally handicapped child	6.6	–	–
Provide a classroom program for underachieving children	–	30.0	–
Be supportive of the exceptional child	4.9	10.0	–
Teach those children referred by a guidance officer	4.9	–	–
Advise and support the regular class teacher	13.3	20.0	20.0
Participate in joint planning and implementation of programs with the classroom teacher	–	10.0	10.0
Provide a consultant service to the school	–	10.0	–
Teach reading	4.9	10.0	–
Provide an assessment service	–	–	20.0
Provide contact and liaison between school and Guidance Branch and other outside agencies	–	–	–
Provide a withdrawal teaching service	11.5	–	–
Support parents	3.3	20.0	10.0
Support teachers	4.9	40.0	70.0
Change of title	–	20.0	–
Provide resources	–	20.0	10.0

It can be seen that specialists support the provision of programs in the regular classroom for underachievers, but regular teachers did not agree with this. While most regular teachers now see the role of the support teacher as helping them, this is not so strongly the view of the support teachers, though they are much more in favour of this now than was true 15 years previously.

Given the marked differences in perception of the role of support teachers held by themselves and classroom teachers, it is important to consider what role changes might be sought. Classroom teachers (60%) wanted support teachers to have more up to date curriculum knowledge, more cooperative teaching and more integration of the support teacher within school policy. While support teachers suggested some changes, there were none suggested by the majority. Rather their ideas represented fine tuning of the concept.

Some suggestions for the future

A valuable first line of action is for the teacher to refer the problem to a team consisting of other teachers (the In-School Team). These teams should have been established as part of the collaborative school policy-making process. However, teams can be enlarged to include members of the school executive and specialist support staff. However, the latter should be held in reserve for a second stage referral/consultation process. This is to ensure that

> … most problems are solved by regular educators, decision-making power rests with the classroom teacher, the expertise of regular classroom teachers is valued, and all problems do not need the same combination of educators for their solution. (Wiener & Davidson, 1990, p. 428)

The second reason why it is valuable to utilize regular teachers is that the assessment data which they can gather are based on classroom observation and can be validated by other regular teachers. This leads naturally to the formation of teaching strategies which can be tried. Of course, greater benefit can be obtained if teachers are taught how to observe systematically. Further, a cooperative approach offers the best chance of overcoming the sensitivity of teachers to having someone observe in their classroom. The most obvious difference in assessment focus from the traditional 'refer the child to the specialist' model is that the whole classroom (not just the student) is under scrutiny. To see what the traditional approach is like, let us consider for a moment this extract from Tracy Kidder's (1991) *Among Schoolchildren* (Mrs Chris Zajac is the teacher).

> It was as another teacher had said: "Poor Pedro. He works so hard to get an F." His situation had seemed intolerable to Chris the very first day when, after assigning some simple classwork, she stopped to look over Pedro's shoulder, and he looked up at her and asked, "Did I do good, Mrs. Zajac?"
>
> "You did *very* well, Pedro!" It wasn't entirely untrue; here in fifth grade, he could do some of the work expected of a second grader.
>
> Chris might have gone all year without knowing much about Pedro's life away from school, but that first question he'd asked her—"Did I do good, Mrs. Zajac?"—had send her bustling to the office the second day of school to get the forms to start a "core evaluation" of Pedro.
>
> A "core," as it was usually called—the student was the apple—involved a lot of paperwork and protocol, which always made the process lengthy, and an investigation of a child's background and a battery of psychological and intelligence tests. Eventually, a meeting would occur, and various administrators and teachers and experts would lay out a program for addressing a child's problems. In Chris's experience, the diagnoses were usually better than the cures. Most cores ended with an optimistic, carefully thought out "individualized ed. plan," which in practice meant that the child left his regular classroom for an hour or so each day for the Resource Room, where a specialist in learning disabilities would begin to put that plan into operation. But … more than forty children with more than forty ed. plans went to the Resource Room teacher and her aide every day, and the poor woman who ran that room simply couldn't do it all. Chris didn't know much about what went on in there, but it wasn't miracles, clearly. Three boys from her class went, and she couldn't see any effect.
>
> Chris thought that the wrong children often got, as the saying went, "cored" and sent to the Resource Room, children whose main problem with school seemed to be behavior, not ability. The Resource Room teacher remarked, "It's something of a dumping ground. I hate to say it, but it is." Nevertheless, a core was the only remedy available for Pedro.

> At least the testing might reveal whether or not Pedro really was retarded, and maybe it would give Chris some ideas about what she could do for him. But why hadn't there been a core evaluation of Pedro already? That question really bothered her. Was it because teachers had lost faith in cores, or was it because Pedro didn't cause trouble? (1991, pp. 80, 81-82)

One major disadvantage of traditional referral is that it deskills regular teachers, whereas the goal of both pre-service and in-service education should surely be to increase the effectiveness of classroom programs by making teachers more competent.

Over the past twenty years several trends are discernible. The emphasis is now on what regular classroom teachers can do in their own classroom. Furthermore, the focus has broadened from the child with learning difficulties to the classroom, school, family and community contexts of learning. This has necessitated a richer theoretical framework than the earlier medical or behavioural models (though these still have a place).

Another implication of the need to increase the skills of regular teachers is that curriculum and in-service must address a wider range of student needs. For example, the Queensland Department of Education's Early Literacy Inservice Program (ELIC) focussed only on mainstream literacy, with the intention of using a second wave intervention such as Clay's (1985, 1987) Reading Recovery. The Further Literacy Inservice Program (FLIP) which focusses on the upper primary school, also adopted a mainstream curricular emphasis but has since been extended by several units devoted to making classroom provision for students with learning difficulties. Because the mainstream units had used a sufficiently complex model of literacy learning, the 'special education' component was able to be integrated without difficulty.

To return to the question of In-School Teams, we might ask how effective they are. Do the benefits I have outlined really occur? Some evidence comes from a Canadian study of 22 primary schools (Wiener & Davidson, 1990).

It was found that it was important for the leader to probe the referring teacher carefully to bring out salient issues. (It is interesting to note that 13% of all students were discussed by In-School Teams, a figure similar to the 11% with learning difficulties and 3% with behaviour difficulties identified by teachers in the National Survey of Special Education 14 years ago

(Andrews, Elkins, Berry, & Burge, 1979) and confirmed by later studies in Victoria and Queensland Catholic schools.)

In most cases only one or two half hour meetings of the In-School Team were needed to develop action plans. Follow-up was not systematic; often an informal discussion in the staff room sufficed. One major weakness was that while parents were informed that In-School Teams were considering a student, they were rarely invited to participate in the discussions.

Over half the referred students were provided with modified programs in their home classroom, 35% were given some withdrawal remediation and 10% were placed in a full-time learning difficulties class. The implications of the latter outcomes for school organization are that in a school of say 300 students, about 12 would need tutoring and 4 would need a full-time placement. In my view, we need further research to determine the most efficient allocation of scarce resources to different support modes. However, could I venture one idea which may help resolve an apparent contradiction in the literature regarding tutorial assistance. On the one hand, Allington (1987) has found that withdrawal is probably detrimental because children in the US actually spend less time in reading than they would have if they had stayed in the regular classroom. In contrast, Wasik and Slavin (1990) have reviewed five different one to one tutorial methods (including Reading Recovery) and found consistent benefits to result. If we take it as given that learning is a function of effective time use, and that learning is greatly enhanced by individual or small group tuition (compared with that in whole class settings) then the logical conclusion is to try to obtain benefits by manipulating both variables. There are several models worth considering to increase the effective use of instructional time.

1. Use an expert in the classroom to work with individual students as they participate in the regular program.

2. Use an aide or volunteer (with appropriate training) to work with individual students as they participate in the regular program.

3. Use an aide or volunteer to supervise the rest of the class while doing assigned tasks, so that the teacher can work with individual students.

4. Extend the school day and have the student with learning difficulties given individual tutoring by someone familiar with the classroom program — this could be the regular teacher or a specialist teacher.

5. Implement peer or cross-age tutoring in school time or outside it.

6. Train parents to provide one:one tutoring at home (Glynn et al., 1979).

We do not have a lot of evidence on the comparative effectiveness of these options, nor on their costs. Furthermore, there may be structural impediments to their implementation.

Before leaving this topic, I would like to point out that the six models I outlined have different effects for example, some increase the skills of regular teachers, others empower parents, while others contribute to the social and intellectual growth of students who tutor their peers.

Finally, I want to present a flow chart (Figure 1) which was developed as part of a recent study of support teaching in the state of New South Wales (Elkins et al., 1992). This shows how a multi-stage approach can be developed which recognizes that it is best if the classroom teacher handles most examples of students who experience difficulties in learning to read, and yet enables efficient use of specialist support. How well this model will work in practice remains to be tested.

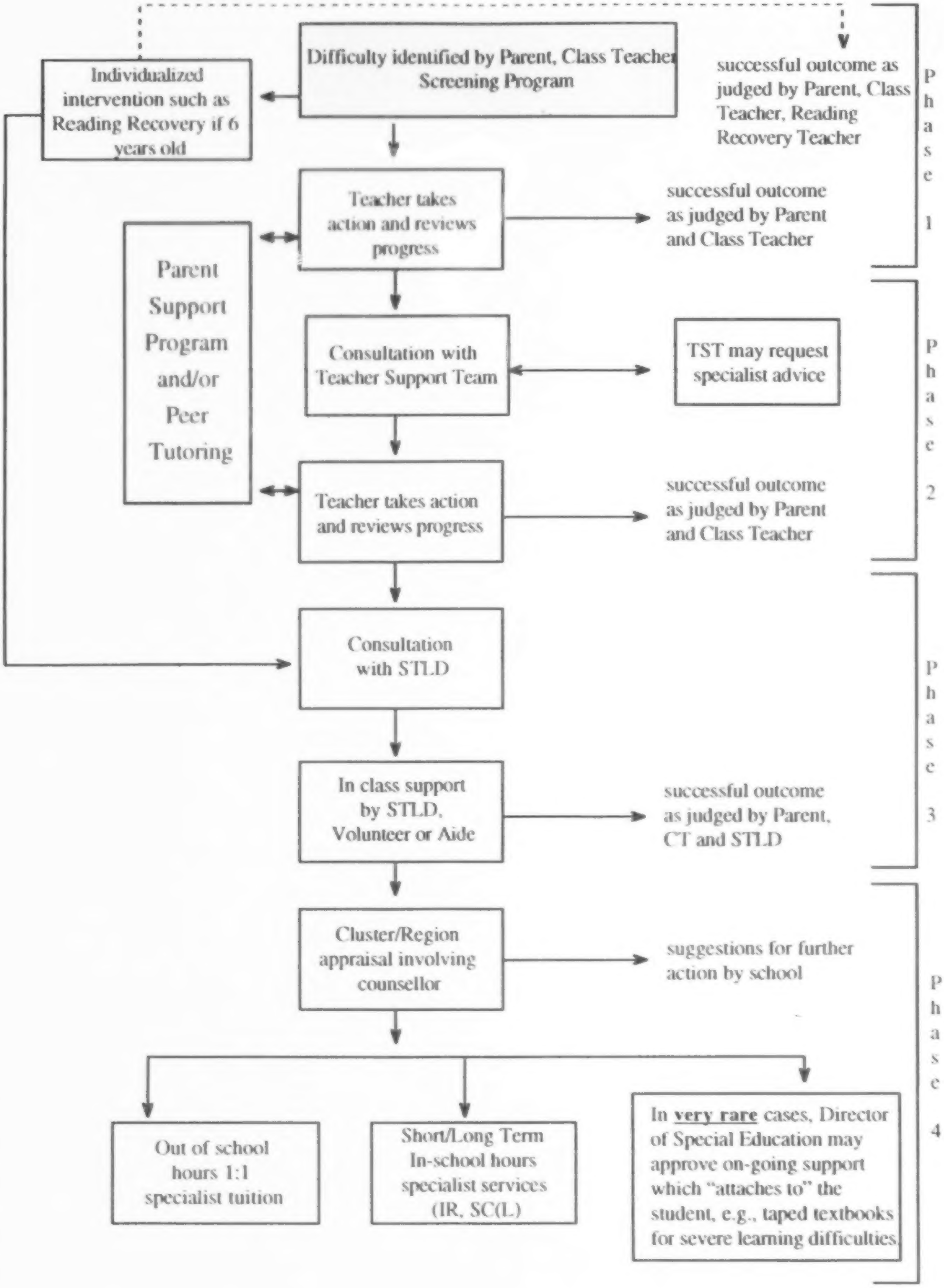
Difficulty identified by Parent, Class Teacher Screening Program
Individualized intervention such as Reading Recovery if 6 years old
successful outcome as judged by Parent, Class Teacher, Reading Recovery Teacher
Phase 1
Teacher takes action and reviews progress
successful outcome as judged by Parent and Class Teacher
Parent Support Program and/or Peer Tutoring
Consultation with Teacher Support Team
TST may request specialist advice
Phase 2
Teacher takes action and reviews progress
successful outcome as judged by Parent and Class Teacher
Consultation with STLD
Phase 3
In class support by STLD, Volunteer or Aide
successful outcome as judged by Parent, CT and STLD
Cluster/Region appraisal involving counsellor
suggestions for further action by school
Phase 4
Out of school hours 1:1 specialist tuition
Short/Long Term In-school hours specialist services (IR, SC(L)
In very rare cases, Director of Special Education may approve on-going support which "attaches to" the student, e.g., taped textbooks for severe learning difficulties

Figure 1. Flow chart of intervention and review

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Becoming Aware of World Cultures and Ways of Speaking through Literary Texts

a paper presented for

Japan Reading Association

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by

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1 Background and rationale to the study

The notion of social acceptability and rightness of language depends on what we understand by the norms of behaviour in the target language. English, for example, has generally been taught and promoted with the norms of cultural behaviour as used by native speakers.

But are native speaker values of cultural and pragmatic norms consecrated? It really depends what the goals of language teaching are. In many countries in Asia the goal is not only to learn English so as to speak with native users of the language but English is also used in intranational communication.

The non-native speaker (NNS) uses English as a function of his cultural presuppositions and value systems and this is evident in the spoken discourse between non-native speakers. The sociolinguistic dimension of discourse is seen for instance in choice of topics discussed at first encounters. Topics which are considered personal or inappropriate to bring up at a first encounter vary from culture to culture. Even what is considered a personal question and what is deemed impersonal is not a constant across all cultures.1

Smith, 1985 is of the view that when one teaches EIL, the cultural base must come from the local value systems. If this is the case then the native speaker (NS) is no longer the norm to measure against for the attainment of communicative competence. Communicative competence has been defined as "the knowledge of linguistic and related communicative conventions that speakers must have to create and sustain conversational cooperation..." (Gumperz 1982:209)

The reality is that culture specific communicative behaviour prevails in the oral discourse in the Englishes of non-native speakers. For instance in Asia the importance of humility, "saving the other's face", deference and respect to elders and social superiors and indirectness are reflected in speech.

Holmes, 1989 in discussing teaching material which ignores the influence of the sex of the participants in interaction says "...will misrepresent the sociolinguistic norms of the community concerned."

In a similar vein, language teaching materials which ignore the culture specific communicative behaviour, as manifest in the authentic verbal discourse and only portray TL speech norms do not take into account the fact that English is often used for instrumental purposes rather than integrative ones, as is the case in intranational communication in Singapore and in some towns in Malaysia for example, Kuala Lumpur.

Learners of a target language can be made consciously aware of the differences in certain speech acts, albeit in English, when used by a native speaker of the language and by a target language speaker. The values and cultural norms underlying the English language which a non-native speaker of English uses is not the same as that of a native speaker. Consequently, the responses to say compliments will be different.

2 Aim and rationale of the study

This paper therefore shows how the more proficient reader can be made aware of such differences in a specific speech acts i.e. compliment giving and receiving.

L2 cultural norms are generally reflected in teaching materials. It is therefore vital that the learner of English be made aware through literary texts of the way one speaks in different cultures, even though English may be the means of communication.

It must be reiterated that English is merely a means of communication and we must maintain our cultural norms and values even though using a second language especially if English is used in discourse with a fellow countryman or a fellow Asian.

A literary text "Bicycle Days" By Scwartz is analysed with a view of showing how a text can be used to indicate different speech realisations. Speech act realizations which are aligned to local socio-cultural rules of language use can be indicated by the reading teacher and used as a springboard for further analysis.

A knowledge of local social cultural rules of language use is necessary to show differences in how native and non-native speakers of a target language, in this case English react to compliments. This can help the English language learner to adapt his speech realisations depending on whom he is talking to- a native or non-native speaker of the English language.

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Speech acts are the focus of this study because they are generally taught in spoken discourse. Speech Act theory is concerned with the use of language to do things and speech acts are definitely not comparable across cultures.

Schmidt and Richards 1980 and Blum-Kulka have noted that speech acts differ cross-culturally in their distribution, function and frequency of occurrence. Culture-specific speech acts necessitate a familiarity with the local value systems. Only then can the illocutionary force behind the speech act be understood.

What occurs in authentic interactions in the Malaysian setting is an indigenous speech act, albeit in the English language. L1 culture and value norms are manifest in L2 discourse and linguistic activities that occur in NS-NS conversations are different from discourse in NNS- NNS interactions or encounters.

This awareness of L1 value norms can be focussed on, by using examples from literary texts so that learners of English are made conscious of the different verbalisations of the same speech act.

This paper will specifically look at how compliments, are treated in a text.

3 Compliments

Readers can be made aware of the different - Asian and Western responses to compliments. Compliments, like apologies are primarily aimed at maintaining, enhancing, anointing or supporting the addressee's "face" (Goffman, 1967) and are generally regarded as positive politeness strategies.

Information about differences in the pragmatic and sociolinguistic behaviour of NS and NNS vis-a-vis compliment giving and receiving can be used by the reading teacher as a basis for comparison since there are culturally different ways of responding to compliments.

In some cultures an acceptance of the compliment is the norm but in others an acceptance would signify some derogatory connotations about the compliment receiver and the norm is to deny or negate the compliment.

4 Reading Teacher's role

The reading teachers' role is to alert and sensitize his students on the differences in the communication styles and expectations of the native speakers using English as contrasted with non-native speakers.

Such awareness in vital for intra and inter-cultural contact and communication. The ability to switch and accommodate to their interlocutors results in a high degree of communicative effectiveness. Through the use of comparative teaching materials culled from literary texts the reading teacher helps to build and sustain this sensitivity and language learners will learn to change their conversational styles depending on whether English is used intranationally or internationally, with native speakers of English or with Asean speakers using English.

It is believed that an explicitly contrastive discussion of responses/ formulas used in Malaysian English i.e. English used intranationally as against English used with target language speakers will be helpful in improving the learner's performance and his understanding of the native speaker's (TL) culture.

In discourse with the native speaker of the target language "thank you" is an expression of gratitude made in response to a compliment and is an adjunct to the function of complimenting. Data of native speaker responses from a comparative study on native-and non-native responses indicates that native speaker responded to compliments by an expression of thanks, followed by either a redundant question, " Do you like it?" or by expressing pleasure "I'm glad you like it." (Eisentein and Bodman 1986:171) The term cultureme has been used to describe utterances which are particular to a given culture. (Ekstrand et al 1981:273)

What is the cultureme or conversational maxims or norms of the non-native speaker of English to compliments?

Examples are from "Bicycle Days" by John Burnham Scwartz- a record of a young American's sojourn into the social and business world of Japan

Example 1

Alec :- The sukiyaki is delicious
Mrs Hasegawa:- No it is terrible
(looking pleased)

Pg 42

Example 2

Alec :- Nice to meet you. Your English is terrific
Nobi:- Not true, but thanks anyway.

Pg 51

Example 3

Alec :- You have a good voice
Japaanese girl:- Thank you but I do not practise enough

Pg 98

Example 4

Japanese Grandfather:- Grandmother makes the best nabe in Japan. The best
Grandmother:- It is not true , Alec. My husband is only teasing me . Besides Alec is helping me. He is a very good cook

Alec:- (No response)

Pg 152

Example 5

Alec:-	Your blouse is beautiful
Japanese girl:-	No it is nothing

Pg 166

Example 6

Alec to fellow American

Alec:-	You look good too
American friend:-	Thanks

Pg 176

Example 7

Alec :- Your dress is very pretty Mother
Response:- Eat
Alec:- The shrimp is delicious
Response:- Eat the rice too

Pg 248

In the examples 1 and 2, the Japanese disagrees with and denies the compliment. Humility and modesty are reflected in such a denial. Negating the compliment is a deferential act aligned with cultural norms and value systems. It is merely an appropriate speech routine used by the Japanese when complimented.

The reading teacher can then ask such questions like:-

How would you react to such a compliment? (in L1? in L2?)

Does the language you use make a difference or does it depend on who you are talking to?

Is the Japanese hostess rude in not responding to the compliment in Example 7?

Is there any difference in the way the Japanese and the American respond to compliments? (Compare Examples 5 and 6)

In such an analysis of text the teacher can make the language user aware of cross-cultural differences in responding to compliments.

Similarly, strategies used by Malaysians in responding to compliments are self-effacing in nature and Malaysians generally take a deferential posture and abase themselves when responding to compliments. Not only are such utterances the reactions of Malaysian speakers of English but Scandinavians too react similarly to compliments. (see Ekstrand et al 1981)

The responses of native and non-native speakers to compliments are different and the " correctness" or appropriacy or politeness of the response depends on the socio-pragmatic rules of language use. "To be polite is saying the socially acceptable thing".(Lakeoff:1975:53). It would not do to respond with a "Thank you" for this would mean that one was openly acknowledging the fact, for example that one was pretty, had a handsome husband etc.

There are not only different ways of responding to compliments but the number of times people compliment, the kinds of things people compliment and the words they use to compliment differ from culture to culture.

The language of compliments also varies across cultures. What is considered good or pretty in one culture may not be the same in another. Therefore the similes and comparisons used will vary across cultures.

Example 8 She is like the moon and ...

Levine 1987:21

Example 9 Your earings are pure gold aren't they?

Ibid

The reading teacher can ask the learners reactions to being compared to the moon?
Is it a compliment?
In your culture how would you compliment a pretty woman?
What would you compare her with?

And for Example 9

Do you think this is a question ? Or a compliment?

Is the speaker intruding into your personal space by asking such a personal question?

5 Operationalising the theory

Kachru 1987 emphasizes that we must recognize "multinorms of styles and strategies" and "socio-linguistic pluricentricity". Reading Teachers must therefore be aware of cultural and sociolinguistic differences underlying the communicative behaviour of native and non-native users of English.

Operationalizing the concept may create problems especially if the teacher herself is not aware of cultural differences as manifest in the languages of the main ethnic groups in a country. The teacher has to be well versed in L1A L1B L1C cultures especially if she is teaching a multiracial group.

6 Conclusion and recommendations

Literary texts can be used to sensitize the more proficient language learner of socio-cultural realities. A broader repertoire of speech acts is strongly urged as it will make us aware of our own cultural wealth. Furthermore, learners will be sensitivized to the culture-specific differences in language behaviour.

RESPONSE OF PRE SCHOOL CHILDREN TO BAWAL AS AN 'ENCOURAGING TO READ PROGRAMME'

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ABSTRACT

BAWAL (an acronym for Early Reading) is a package designed with an aim to encourage children between the ages of 4 - 6 years old to read. It was developed in early 1992 by some lecturers from the Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia. The main objective of this paper is to outline the conceptual framework, its characteristics and the results of a small study carried out at Taman Siswa Muda (TSM), a pre - school laboratory of The Faculty of Education (UKM), on the response of the pre-school children to BAWAL.

On the whole, the results show a positive response of the children towards the books in the BAWAL programme. Some of the positive behaviour observed are : children prefer books from the BAWAL programme as compared to other books (when given an opportunity to choose); children would talk about characters from the books in the BAWAL programme; children would ask teacher to reread stories from the BAWAL programme; children constantly talk about the stories told from the BAWAL programme when asked to tell their favourite story to their friends in the kindergarten.

INTRODUCTION

Publishing for children in Malaysia as in most developing countries, began with textbooks that were published by colonial powers (for the case of Malaysia, it was then the British). It was not until Malaysia gained independence in 1957, that the people began to feel the need to have children's literature in the vernacular language. However, until the early seventies, books for children in the country were still very much dominated by foreign writers [1]: For example, in 1960, Isabelle Fermont wrote Huffing and Puffing, which was adapted from The Three Little Pigs. She replaced the three pigs with three mousedeers and the wolf with a tiger. Little did she realise that in Malay folktales, there is only one mousedeer, who personifies wit and intelligence, so there can never be three! Things began to change in the mid-seventies, when native writers began to enter the field of publishing and to write their own stories. The early publishing efforts were often simple mysteries, school stories and some illustrated books but none of them could be really termed as picture books.

Today, there is a great deal more of Malay Children's literature in the Malaysian market. However, this is mostly either translated picture books or books in English; there are very few in the Malay language. It was realising this need to have more books in the vernacular language in order to istil or encourage reading amongst pre-shool children, that a group of lecturers from the Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia began to embark on the research of creating a curriculum model for early reading.

The Conceptual Framework of BAWAL

Teachers play an important role in ensuring that children learn how to read. In this context, the specific role ot the teacher is to ensure that the emergent readers, who are going through the process of acquiring language, should find the process as a meaningful reading exercise. Most of the books available in Malaysia stresses on the 'how to read' type of books which concentrates on the mechanisms of reading but lack the type of books that can be a source for information and enjoyment. Thus, there was a need to build a set of books in a systematic manner not only to suit their taste of reading but also to enhance their interest and motivation to read. The conceptual framework of BAWAL is basically based on the mental development theory [2], Language acquisition theory, and the cognitive learning theory-grounded in the information processing model.

Based on this theoretical framework, BAWAL is targeted at pre-school children who are beginning to think intintively when communicating with the environment and are beginning to use symbols. BAWAL also incorporated the three areas of development as identified by Bloom [3], cognitif, affective and psychomotor in all the books in the programme. Learning to read with BAWAL would be carried out through the story-telling approach. By this method, pre-school children will acquire learning cognitively as well as affectively [4].

Charateristics of BAWAL

Basically BAWAL has distinct characteristics:

- BAWAL consists of fifty creative and imaginative stories based on multiple themes suitable for pre-school children.

- The package is divided into three levels:level one consists of twenty-five books suitable for emergent readers, The focus of the books at this level is on simple concept books like shapes, colour, taste, and other concrete things around the environment. This is so that children can easily identify with the stories. The words are minimal and there is constant repetition of words to help the child recognize and remember. This is the most important level to instill the confidence and motivation for the child necessary for him/her to continue reading later in life.

- Level two, consists of fifteen books. The elements instilled in the books of this level is to strengthen the confidence and reading interest of the child. Thus books of this level are of exploratory nature suitable with the development of the child at this age. Simple and repetitive words and phrases are still maintained for the same reasons mentioned earlier. Level three, consists of ten books which com prises of themes with adventurous, dramatic and suspense elements in them. These elements were included to sustain the child's interest in listening and reading the books.

- All the books in BAWAL have local heroes and heroines as well as local scenes as the background. This is deliberate, so that the children can identify with the characters and stories; thus can understand and enjoy the stories better.

- The approach adopted when using BAWAL is the 'interactive approach' whereby the adult (teachers or parents) are meant to read the books together with the children. This is because the books are only the focus, but it is hoped that the love and warmth of sitting close together, the pleasure of looking and talking about the pictures in the books together with the child, form vital elements in nurturing a love for reading literature. The reading sessions of BAWAL can then be special moments not just for the children but also for the adults.

- The books in BAWAL are different than the other books in that at the last page of each book, the writer has indicated the learning objectives of the book as well as extended activities to be carried out by the adult and the child. These extended activities are related to the stories in the book.

- A guide on how to use BAWAL at home and in schools are also included in this package. In addition, observational forms are also included in the package for teachers and parents to record in the behaviour of the child before and after their experience with BAWAL.

- Method of presentation of BAWAL is the story-telling technique. The rationale behind this is that children love to hear stories, stories can motivate children, children can gain from new experience in stories, stories can enhance and stimulate their minds, stories can also broader their acquisition of language and stories can also enhance their appreciation for literature later in their lives.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

Malaysia aspires to become an industrialised nation by 2020. Having laid its foundation, it is natural that the country should make the necessary preparation to ensure that the new generation by the year 2020 are not only literate but are a reading society in the actual sense. This is clearly documented in the Prime Minister's Speech [5] which is now popularly known as vision 2020.

Studies on reading habits in the country show that a very small portion of the society have acquired the reading habit despite the increase in the number of local publications of the country. Reading habits have to be instilled from young and it is during the pre-school years that encouragement should be given by both teachers and parents. BAWAL was created with the main objective of instilling interest and encouraging the child to read. Thus the main questions are: is BAWAL able to instill the interest of reading the books in the package amongst the pre-school children? Is BAWAL successful in encouraging the pre-school children to read?

OBJECTIVE OF RESEARCH

Generally, the main objective of this research was to investigate the response of pre-school children to BAWAL as an 'Encouraging to Read' Programme. Specifically, the main objective ot his research is to answer the research questions such as follows:

1. To what extent are pre-school children encouraged to read the BAWAL Programme through the interactive approach?
2. To what extent does activities in the BAWAL Programme encourage pre-school children to read?
3. To what extent does pre-school children enjoy listening to BAWAL?

RESEARCH DESIGN

The research was carried by the observational method. The researcher carried out the reading/story-telling sessions herself whereby observations were made during and after each sessions first-hand. Observations were made three days each week for two months during the reading sessions. Each time, all twenty children were being observed very closely. Observations were made based on the questions set in the observational forms. The sample were twenty pre-school children (all six-year olds) of the Taman Siswa Muda (TSM), a kindergarten which is also a pre-school laboratory of the Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia. This number represents about thirty percent of the six-year olds in the kindergarten. Various constructs were build to answer the main research questions. Most of the items in the instrument ie. the observational forms consists of constructs built to answer the three main research questions.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

The items in the instrument consists of constructs built to show the behavior of the pre-school child. Method of analysis used was descriptive and inferential. No hypothesis was created because it was felt that a descriptive analysis would be more useful and meaningful.

RESULTS OF RESEARCH

For the purpose,of this paper, analysis of the results of the reearch will be discussed under the following topics :

- o Encouraging Reading Through Interactive Approach
- o Encouraging Reading through Extended Activities.
- o Encouraging Reading through Enjoyment.

Encouraging Reading Through Interactive Approach

Research both overseas and local have shown that adults play a very important role in children's development particularly in language acquisition which is an important prerequesit in reading. It is for this reason that the BAWAL Programme adopted this approach. The constructs: 'verbal and social activeness'. were built to measure the first research question that is, to what extend are pre-shool children encouraged to read through the interactive approach? If a high percentage of the pre-school children show verbal and social activeness in their behavior during the reading sessions, than this is a positive indicator of the effectiveness of this approach. Some of the indicators in the instrument that measure this constructs are :

- Children relate stories to their own experience with their teacher.
- Children talks about the pictures in the books and relate it to their own experience with their teacher.
- Children are able to understand all the words in the books after being explained by the teacher.
- Children would talk about characters from the books with their teacher.

Findings of the research showed that majority of the pre-school children (91.4%) throughout the two months with the programme were able to involve themselves actively during the reading sessions. **TABLE 1** shows the detailed distribution of the data.

It can be observed that with the interactive approach children were encouraged to talk with their teacher more freely while the stories were being read to them. Because children can interupt the teacher in between her reading or story-telling, children feels more confident to speak and to ask questions, thus, are able to understand the stories better. Generally, children shows a positive response towards the interactive approach of BAWAL ad indicated in their behavior towards BAWAL.

Encouraging Reading Through Extended Activities

Pre-school children learn more effectively through activities undertaken with their peers and through play. Thus, the extended activities built within the BAWAL Programme has just that in mind. The construct: 'willingness to participate' in extended activities was developed to measure the second research question: that is, to what extent does activities in the BAWAL programme encourage pre-school children to read? If a high percentage of the pre-shool children show their willingness to carryout the activities related to the stories, after the reading or story-telling sessions, then this is a positive indicator of the effectiveness of the extended activities integrated in BAWAL Programme.

TABLE 1
VERBAL AND SOSIAL BEHAVIOUR OF PRE-SCHOOL CHILDREN WITH BAWAL

Indicator	Very Often %	Fairly Often %	Very Seldom %	%
Children relate stories to their own experience with their teacher.	89.3	10.7	-	100
Children talks about the pictures in the books and relate it to their own experience with their teacher.	93.7	6.3	-	100
Children are able to understand most of the words in the books when asked by the teacher.	84.6	3.1	12.3	100
Children would talk about characters from the books with their teacher.	98.3	1.7	-	100

Some of the indicators in the instrument that measure this construct are :

> Children are able to role play characters in the stories read/told.
>
> Children are able to draw/paint scenes from the stories read/told.
>
> Children are able to make masks and puppets of characters from the stories read/told.
>
> Children are able act out scenes from the stories read/told.

Findings showed that majority of the pre-school children (83.4%) throughout the two months with BAWAL indicated a strong willingness to participate in the extended activities integrated in the reading sessions. **TABLE 2** shows the detailed distribution of the data. It can be observed that with the extended activities children were able to relate the stories in other creative ways then just verbal interaction. The extended activities integrated in the programme meant that the children had a longer time with the books and thus are able to retain the stories longer in their minds. This also meant that children are able to see the link between the stories and their everyday lives.

Encouraging Reading Through Enjoyment

Enjoyment is an important element in any reading programme for children. Children must enjoy the reading sessions before they can appreaciate reading as a habit worth undertaken. It was this in mind, that the story-telling approach was adpopted in the BAWAL Programme. The construct: 'eagerness to listen' to stories was developed to measure the third research question: that is, to what extend does pre-shool children enjoy listening to BAWAL? If a high percentage of the pre-school children show signs of eagerness in their behaviour to listen to stories in the BAWAL Programme, then this is a positive indicator of the effectiveness of the story-telling approach integrated in the programme.

TABLE 2
WILLINGNESS TO PARTICIPATE IN EXTENDED ACTIVITIES

Indicator	Very Often	Fairly Often	Very Seldom	Percentage(%)
	%	%	%	
Children are able to draw paint scenes from the stories read/told.	82.3	6.5	11.2	100
Children are able to make masks and puppets of characters from the stories read/told.	76.4	10.8	12.8	100
Children are able to role play characters in the stories read/ told.	89.2	5.6	5.2	100
Children are able to act out scenes from stories read told.	85.6	10.3	4.1	100

Some of the indicators in the instrument that measure this construct are :

Children asks teacher to re-read or retell stories from the BAWAL programme.

Children will choose books from the BAWAL Programme when asked to choose a book to be read.

Children will choose a BAWAL book to read when given a choice to do free activity.

Children will tell a story from BAWAL when asked to tell a story to their friends in the classroom.

Findings showed that majority of the pre-school children (81.3%) througout the two months with BAWAL indicated an eagerness to listen to the stories in the BAWAL programme. **TABLE 3** shows the detailed distribution of data.

TABLE 3
EAGERNESS TO LISTEN TO STORIES READ/TOLD FROM BAWAL

Indicator	Very Often	Fairly Often	Very Seldom	Percentage(%)
	%	%	%	
Children asks teacher to reread/retell stories from BAWAL	89.6	10.2	00.2	100
Children will choose books from BAWAL when asked to choose a book	74.3	8.7	17.0	100
Children will choose a book from BAWAL to to read when given a choice to do free activity	73.4	8.2	18.4	100
Children will tell a story from BAWAL when asked to tell a story to their friends in the classroom	87.9	11.2	00.9	100

It can be observed that with the story-telling approach, the children enjoyed their reading sessions in the classroom. Reading did not become a dull and boring session. Instead reading became a very enjoyable session which the children looked forward to. The researcher also observed that after each story-telling session children wanted to linger to listen to more.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

On the whole the results showed a positive response of the pre-school children towards the BAWAL Programme. This could be attributed to a lot of reasons. For instance, the books were colourful; illustrations were big, clear and meaningful; the words used were mostly from the natural language of children at the pre-school age; the themes chosen were in line with the developmental stage of the pre-school children; and the unconventional technique of production for some of the books (three dimensional books) meant that children could interact actively with the books.

The positive response is also attributed to the approaches taken consciously by the researchers of this programme in order to encourage children to love reading. The interactive approach encouraged children to be close to their teachers and feel free to give their opinions on the books that they read. The story-telling approach encouraged children to 'read' books about the stories being told even when they are not able to read yet. The extended activites encourages children to be creative through reading.

The research also discovered some shortcomings of the BAWAL Programme. For instance, the print is rather small. This makes it difficult for children to read the books themselves. Some of the prints are hidden in some of the colours of the book which again makes reading difficult for the child. During shared reading sessions, it was difficult for the children to see the illustrations in the book due to the size of the books. However, on the whole, the children showed positive response towards the Programme.

CONCLUSION

The small research undertaken at the kindergarten in Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia with the pre-school children is indicative too of response of other pre-school children in th vicinity. It cannot be denied that the BAWAL programme has been successful as an ~Encouraging to Read Programme' to the pre-school children in this research. However, further research will have to be undertaken in other kindergarten in the country. It is hoped that a lot more of such programmes will be created in the country to meet the needs of the children in the country in order that they will become a reading society of the country in the year 2020.

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SYNTACTIC AWARENESS AND EARLY LITERACY

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This paper will focus on my research into some factors which are important in beginning reading. First I will discuss the language abilites children have when they enter school for the first time, and the factors that research suggests play a part in early literacy. Then I will discuss a longitudinal study that I carried out in Western Australia. In this study I measured children's skills in several areas at the beginning of their first year of formal schooling, then in the middle and at the end of their first year, and in their fourth year of school. I found that syntactic awareness measured at the beginning of Year One was important in that year as a contributing factor to the development of reading skills, and still influenced reading in Year Four. I found that some children, who were poor readers, had low scores on a number of the measures taken in Year One, including syntactic awareness. Finally, I present some suggestions for helping children to become syntactically aware. These ideas can be incorporated into regular language programs.

Factors in learning to read.

Children entering school for the first time, have usually developed very good oral language skills. These skills include the ability to express opinions, describe experiences, events or things, and the ability to hold conversations with other children or adults. At this stage of development children use a wide variety of words, and generally use correct grammatical structure. In order to learn to read they need to learn how to map the printed text onto their existing language.

Learning to read is a complicated process and a great deal of teacher time during the first years of school is devoted to teaching children to read. Understanding the factors which influence learning to read is important for helping young children become successful readers (Adams, 1990). Even with optimal conditions and the best teaching methods available not all children achieve the same level of success, and a small number of children of normal intelligence fail to achieve success in reading. Children who do not achieve early success in reading rarely catch up, and as reading is involved in most school subjects, poor readers risk later educational failure (Stanovich, 1986).

The importance of a good early start has prompted research into factors such as listening to stories (Wells, 1985), the development of concepts about print (Clay, 1985), listening comprehension (Juel, Griffith and Gough, 1986), and knowledge of letters (Byrne and Fielding-Barnsley, 1989). Each of these factors play an important part in learning to read, however, they do not account for all the variance. Over recent years there has been increasing interest in the role of metalinguistic factors. Metalinguistic awareness can be defined as the ability to reflect on and manipulate language. Cazden (1976) drew an analogy to explain metalinguistic awareness. She said that using language is like looking through a window. When we look through the window, we see the view, we are not aware the glass is there, just as we use language to express our thoughts without thinking carefully about the sounds, words or grammar. If we want to, we can focus on the glass, perhaps to clean it, and if we want to we can focus on the language we use. Researchers have endeavoured to determine the relative contributions of specific metalinguistic abilities to reading (Tunmer, Herriman and Nesdale, 1988). Mary Rohl is presenting a paper at this conference, on her research into the importance of phonological awareness in learning to read and spell in English. My research focuses on syntactic awareness and early literacy.

What is syntactic awareness?

Although when children go to school they are competent language users and, in the main, use grammatical sentences, not all are syntactically aware. Syntactic awareness can be defined as the ability to reflect on and manipulate the internal grammatical structure of language. Syntactically aware children are able to recognise and correct ungrammatical sentences. When a child says to a younger sibling "You don't say *doggy good*, you say *the doggy is good*" , the child is exhibiting syntactic awareness. As children become syntactically aware they recognise that some sentences with different grammar have the same meaning. For example, they would know that *The girl was chased by the dog* means the same as *The dog chased the girl.* When they are speaking, these children often change the grammatical construction of a sentence if they think that it was misunderstood. Syntactically aware children can also detect two meanings in ambiguous sentences. For example the sentence *The monkey painted in the box* could mean the monkey was standing in the box while painting something, or the monkey painted the inside of the box. Another way children demonstrate syntactic awareness is when they supply an appropriate word that has been left out of a sentence.

How does syntactic awareness develop?

Children develop syntactic awareness between the ages of four and eight (Tunmer, Nesdale and Wright, 1987). As children learn to read and write, they become increasingly aware of the structure of sentences. Several researchers have noticed that this awareness develops thoughout the early school years and that good readers are much more sensitive to syntax than poor readers (Bowey, 1986; Ryan & Ledger, 1984). It could be that good readers become more aware of sentence structure because of their greater exposure to text, or it could be that those children who understand sentence structure before learning to read, become good readers. Recent research suggests that children need some early knowledge of language structure to help them predict unknown words as they are learning to read and that, as they learn to read, understanding of syntax increases (Tunmer, 1990).

How does syntactic awareness help in reading?

When a child learns to read in English, awareness of grammatical structure helps in monitoring understanding of what is being read. For example, a child may recognise that a sentence does not make sense if it seems ungrammatical and can re-read it. While children do use semantic cues in monitoring comprehension of text, syntactic cues are also important. In a study of children in years 1, 2 and 3, Willows and Ryan (1986) found that good readers made use of both semantic and syntactic cues to help them make sense of text. Syntactic awareness also helps children to predict forthcoming words by setting up expectancies for word type. For example, when we read the phrase, *She ran away from the ...* , we know the next word must be a noun such as *tiger* or an adjective such as *big or hungry* , followed by a noun.

In English we have words which are spelt the same but may be pronounced differently and with different meanings. Children who are syntactically aware, can use this knowledge to work out which meaning is intended in the text. For example in the sentences *Did you wind the clock* ? and *The wind blew,* the word *wind* has different meanings and pronunciations. The context of the sentence and syntactic awareness allow us to work out the meanings. Whether a child is learning to read an English orthography or Japanese or Chinese script, knowledge of word order and sentence grammar contributes to mastery of written text.

It has been suggested that when learning to read in English, syntactic awareness, along with incomplete knowledge of letter sounds contributes to phonological recoding skill and the ability to work out unknown words. For example, children who are syntactically aware and know the word *fast* but not the *past*, should be able to decode it in the following example: *The car went very fast. It went past the bus.* It has been shown that even beginning readers can use an analogy strategy such as this to work out unknown words (Goswami & Bryant, 1990). Tunmer (1990) has suggested that syntactic awareness affects reading comprehension through its contribution to both listening comprehension and phonological recoding skill.

In my research I investigated the role of syntactic awareness in learning to read, the contribution of short term verbal memory, general language ability and the role of listening comprehension. I conducted a longitudinal study with 60 children (which decreased to 52 children) who were in their first year of formal schooling at the start of the study and were in their fourth year of school at the conclusion. In Western Australia children start school in the year they turn six. All of the children in my study had attended preschool or kindergarten for four mornings or afternoons a week for one year before they started formal schooling, but they had not been taught to read or write or to learn the letters of the alphabet. Very recently there have been changes in the preschool system, and in many preschools children are now encouraged to recognise the letters of the alphabet and to write.

The children were drawn from two schools in similar areas. All the children were monolingual in English and those with hearing, sight, language or identified learning problems were excluded. None of the children could read at the start of the study.

The children were given two tests of syntactic awareness. The first was an error correction test in which they were asked to correct sentences spoken by a puppet who got his words all mixed up. eg. *kicked Bob the football*

In the second test children were asked to say the missing words that another puppet left out of a number of sentences. eg. *Jill sat on the swing and Mum .....her.*

Short term verbal memory was assessed by asking children to repeat letter strings and word strings of increasing length. A test of operativity was given to assess developmental concepts thought to be important when children start school. eg. one to one correspondence. General language ability was assessed with an instrument which included a number of subtests, including picture vocabulary, sentence imitation, grammatic completion and listening comprehension. Receptive vocabulary, one aspect of verbal intelligence,was also assessed.

In the middle of Year One the children 's reading skills were assessed. They were asked to read lists of words and lists of pseudowords, which are non-words that conform to English rules. As the children did not have sufficient reading skills to score on the criterion measure for the reading comprehension subtest, they were given the listening comprehension subtest. At the end of Year One, three measures of reading were given; real words, pseudowords and reading comprehension.

A group of very poor readers was identified at the end of Year One. These children were at least six months behind the others after one year of school. They failed to achieve sufficient success in reading despite the fact that any children with identified problems or from second language backgrounds had been excluded from the study. When the poor readers were compared with the rest of the children, it was found that there was no significant difference in receptive vocabulary or age, but the poor readers were found to have significantly lower initial scores on syntactic awareness, short term verbal memory and the general language measure. It seemed likely that a combination of these factors had contributed to the poor readers' lack of early success in reading.

In order to investigate further the relative contributions of each of these elements to the reading skills of all the children in the study, multiple regression analysis was conducted on the initial scores and reading, with reading comprehension as the criterion variable. Receptive vocabulary, operativity and short term verbal memory were placed before syntactic awareness to control for those factors. As the test of general language ability contained two subtests of a syntactic nature, it was entered last. The resulting standardised beta weights indicated that syntactic awareness accounted for a significant amount of the variance in reading comprehension.

It has been suggested that when we test syntactic awareness we are also testing vocabulary knowledge, short term memory and syntactic proficiency. Although the tests had been constructed with words commonly used by young children, had simple grammatical structure and used short sentences, it is possible that these factors influenced the results. In order to control for these variables a stepwise multiple regression analysis was performed in which receptive vocabulary was entered first followed scores on the sentence imitation subtest, (which measures syntactic proficiency and short term verbal memory), of the general language measure and finally the syntactic awareness measure. In this analysis syntactic awareness contributed an extra 19% of the variance, F(3,55) =4.20, P<.05. So it appeared that syntactic awareness is an important variable in acquiring beginning reading skills. The poor readers had lower scores on several other initial measures and I wondered whether these factors would continue to be important in later years of school. When the children were in their fourth year of school I returned and assessed their reading skills, syntactic awareness and short term verbal memory.

At the end of Year Four the poor readers were still poor readers, and still had significantly lower scores than the others on a test of syntactic awareness. There was no longer any significant difference between the poor readers and the others on two measures of short term verbal memory. So while at the beginning of the study, the poor readers were not able to remember as many items as the others, in Year Four both groups remembered about the same number of items. This may indicate the general limit of short term memory to 5-7 bits of information.

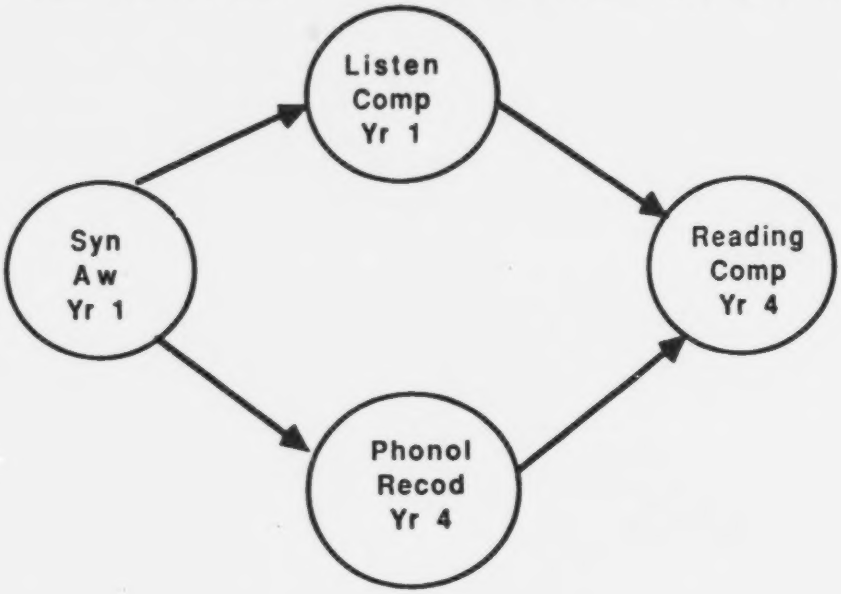
Even though I noted that the poor readers had significantly lower scores in syntactic awareness than the others in Year Four, this was not unexpected and could have been caused by their relative lack of familiarity and exposure to texts with the same level of grammatical complexity as the successful readers. It would be interesting to find out whether syntactic awareness and any of the other factors measured at the beginning of Year One were still playing a part in reading ability in Year Four.

A series of multiple regression analysis were carried out to try to illuminate the relative contributions of beginning factors to later reading. Through these analyses it was shown that syntactic awareness measured at the start of Year One predicted reading comprehension in Year Four after controlling for short term verbal memory and general language ability. It was also found that short term verbal memory measured either in Year One or in Year Four did not predict reading comprehension in Year Four.

Further, it was found that listening comprehension, measured in the middle of Year One did not predict reading comprehension at the end of Year One, but did predict it in Year Four. It is thought that in Year One decoding skills are more important, but by Year Four comprehension becomes more important.

A final finding was that syntactic awareness measured at the commencement of Year One predicted the pseudoword score in Year Four. Scores on the pseudoword test reflect phonological recoding ability. For in order to be able to correctly pronounce the pseudowords, children must be phonologically aware, and must be aware of the rules of the English sound system in formulating words. So it can be inferred that Year One syntactic awareness predicts Year Four phonological recoding ability. These findings support the suggestions of Tunmer mentioned earlier that syntactic awareness affects reading comprehension through its contribution to listening comprehension and phonological recoding. See Fig. 1.

Fig 1.: The effect of syntactic awareness on reading comprehension.



This study has shown that syntactic awareness is important in the first year of school and it is still important in Year Four.

If syntactic awareness is important in reading then can we do anything to foster it in those children who enter school with low levels and who become poor readers?

Suggestions for helping children become syntactically aware.

Syntactic awareness may be developed in whole language or traditional approaches to literacy learning by incorporating these ideas into existing language programs. The following suggestions are taken from Milton (1992) and Rohl and Milton (in press).

- Awareness of words as units of language is a prerequisite for both syntactic and phonological awareness. This can be fostered by playing a game in which children clap their hands once for each word in a sentence or a rhyme and by cutting children's dictated sentences into words. Some early childhood computer programs are also helpful in teaching young children to understand that words are individual units.

- When children answer questions encourage them to give whole sentence answers. Many children are inclined to give one word answers. When they do, say, "Tell me the whole thing/story/sentence." This encourages them to focus on the sentence as a unit of meaning.

- Reciting chants and asking children to change specific words will encourage awareness of grammatical form. For example:

  Creeping through the jungle,
  What did I see?
  A hungry/sleepy/growly tiger
  Looking at me.

  In the same way, class big books can be made which retain the sentence structure of a published shared book. For example, the sentences in *Oi! Get Off Our Train:*

  I think there is going to be a strong wind.
  If there is we can all fly kites.

  could become:

  I think there is going to be a heavy shower.
  If there is we can all use umbrellas.

- Oral cloze exercises in which children have to supply the missing word helps them focus on the type of word as well as the meaning. This exercise can be done while reading children a story. Pause before different types of words and let them guess. Any grammatically correct word which preserves the meaning of the story is acceptable.

- Print sentences on card and have the children cut them up into separate words. Then they can take turns at creating meaningful sentences. The physical manipulation of language is very important for young children.

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THE LANGUAGE OF MEDIA

Jeanne DeVaughn Dowd

The National Agenda For Multicultural Australia is a policy document released by the Prime Minister in July 1989, which clearly states the opportunities and responsibilities of all Australians. Credence is given to the retention of own national identity; social justice for all language speakers; economic efficiency or the need to use talents of all Australians, regardless of background. The enormity of the task of implementing this policy is best understood by realising Australia has been identified as 'home to the world' with its one hundred ethnic groups and one hundred and nine ethnic newspapers. Sydney has been described as the most culturally diverse of Australia's cities, and SBS National Radio 2EA broadcasts in more than sixty languages a week.

In 1991, figures showed that one million people did not possess effective English literacy skills. The National Agenda indicates that language and literacy development is considered a responsibility of the community at large: the government, industry and community agencies contribute as well. Individuals must share this responsibility, too, by accessing available learning opportunities.

Commitment to this important task of language and literacy development includes learning of migrant languages on a needs basis. Most Australians would benefit from learning a second language.

Australia's commitment to multiculturalism is deep and lasting. Substantial projects to propel this have been funded on an almost permanent basis. The promise provides for the study of Asia in Australian schools, more effective links between the individual countries and strategies to improve national awareness of Asia within Australia.

The National Agenda succinctly identifies the need for firm dedication to programs in English literacy and English as a Second Language [ESL], and it identifies the need for strong support for maintenance of mother tongue in a multicultural continent.

Perhaps one of the most important tools to accomplish this awesome goal is a statement obscurely placed in the comprehensive Australian Language and Literacy Policy handbook. This important statement declares:

'Language services through...***electronic media*** should be expanded.'

Much has been, and is taking place in a multimedia sense. Distance education has long been a specialty offering in Australia. Multimedia services reach across barriers of vast, thinly populated, outback locations. More recently, sophisticated equipment has been tested in various pilot programs. There are Teleconference links, DUCT with the DUCT microwave video, live from one location to another [Diverse Use of Communication Technology]. Laser technology incorporates laser discs as well as computerisation and can be found in the State of New South Wales [NSW]. Interactive video provides hands-on experience while computer-based instruction via modem is accessed through Telememo.

Video production can be a powerful enhancer of literacy projects. As early as 1975, one ASEAN country provided a one-year televised series to teach phonetic reading to Asian beginning readers, a series updated at regular intervals. This medium made learning more interesting and comprehensible.

Australia is committed to multiculturalism and uses media tools to bring the greatest possible practicality to programs for migrants, either in their mother tongue or English. Today, both schools and libraries understand the contribution of this motivational medium to comprehension and personal expression.

While there have been enormous advances made in literacy development through media technology, perhaps more lasting results are realised when learners control the production equipment. They plan and execute each step of the production process. Their message reaches out to audiences in succinct formats. These short presentations can be powerful as a thirty-second public service announcement or three-minute news item. Longer ten-minute clips become records of community projects to share with other schools, libraries or interested groups.

Those students unable to write an article can go through the simple steps of video production, culminating in a product pleasing to self, family and friends. Those with dysgraphia can now, through the use of computer technology, write and illustrate, eventually developing a more normal pace with practice. Special students with mild learning disorders can more readily develop organisational skills and express personal points of view.

There is increasing interest on a global level of preparing today's students for tomorrow's international culture and economy. A recent report, ***America in Transition: The International Frontier,*** discusses the consequences of globalisation for the United States workforce:

> 'Fibre optics networks span the continents. Billions of dollars move in seconds from Milan to Tokyo to New York. Goods move around the world in a single day. An individual product may contain parts manufactured in five different countries and be assembled in a sixth'.

One college president suggests we must train people to operate [electronically] in an increasingly internationalised environment even if they never leave [home]. In this effort toward a global perspective, foreign language classes are, understandably, perceived as having a major role to play. Indeed, Joseph Lo Bianco, director of the National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia [NLLIA], tells us language issues are no longer the province of academics and educators; they are integral to every element of life in Australia and particularly to commercial life.

Since language learning and development of technological skills seem to be crucial issues to our development as global communicators; and since the government, industry and the community are responsible for the written policy, we need to next look at implementation of policy. Alison Crook, New South Wales State Librarian , tells us that government policy is only as good as its implementation.

Our team wanted to show implementation at the heart of key issues and to provide visual examples. For this reason, we chose a video crew of high school media students to help us document our search .

SCHOOLS

Marrickville Public School, a primary school located near Sydney's airport, first drew our attention by its attractive ethnic art work used to decorate the school ground. The principal, Phil Lambert, described the background of this unique project . On a return flight into Sydney, approaching the landing strip, he looked down from the vantage of the aeroplane window and saw his school below. It looked drab, not at all like the colourful, cheerful and welcoming venue he knew it to be. But he did notice some painted circles...leftovers from age-old circle games. He recognised the powerful symbol of these circles and used them to draw together the varied ethnic populations in the school.

As the project progressed, teachers, parents and children shared the transformation of the rings into dramatic and symbolic patterns representing the ethnic background of the student population: Vietnamese, Chinese, Greek, Portuguese, Tongan and Australian. Especially appealing was the Vietnamese painting with the words meaning, 'Planting Young Rice'.

Academically, this school personifies the literacy and language policy: the provision of English for all and mother-tongue support services in the minority languages. Research tells us that if a child is submerged in a new language environment before he has a chance to develop his language skills in his mother tongue, the child's cognitive growth could be negatively affected. This is the situation which most children of non-English background find themselves when they reach school age and have no mother tongue support. The school environment can play a major role in language maintenance. Where there is concentration of speakers of minority languages, they can impart that language to non-speakers.

It is not considered a privilege to learn to read in your own language, but is considered a *basic human right.* Danish educationist, Skutnabb-Kangas wrote: 'Every child should have the right to identify positively with original mother tongue and have that identification accepted and respected by others'. [1986]

Principal Lambert, credits success of Australia's multicultural literacy policy to trained, experienced and caring educators. The key benefit is teaching initial reading in the child's own language and offering first language maintenance thereafter. English is taught concurrently to all students.

Lambert is in a position to recognise that Australia has made an outstanding contribution to maintenance of home languages. Ninety-two percent of the students at Marrickville Public School speak languages other than English.

St Peter Chanel Girls High School has found a way to welcome and sponsor new speakers of English. By donating part of their lunch break, students assist all who request special tuition. An idea initiated by counsellor and English teacher, Mary Ellen Knight, supports the rationale that children learn a great deal from other children. The power of this learning from peers is easily seen. Children learn playground games, the language of friends and social behaviour both quickly and effectively.

The aim is to operate a peer teaching program in which 'trained' students make themselves available to help others with school work, assignments, studying and generally just 'be a friend'. This is especially helpful to students who have completed an intensive English course and need a special 'buddy' they can count on.

The program is supported by library services. Tutors undergo short training courses so they know how to 'listen' and identify problem areas. Does a particular problem reflect poor study habits, lack of adequate skills or an attitude problem? Tutors can rely on receiving any information they need from their staff sponsor. Students who are not achieving well can practice basic skills, read aloud, spell, or practice exam items. This very individualised approach always gets results.

Roberta Reid Bilingual Deaf School offers education for both hearing and deaf children. It is identified as a bilingual school because it provides training for children whose parents are deaf, a family environment these children must learn to cope with.

Instruction for deaf migrants was initiated in 1850 and represents a dialect of British sign language. This form of communication is classified by linguists as a 'true language'. Different forms of learning are represented by finger spelling, a 'write in the air' method to spell names of people and places. Signed English, a more recent invention seeks to exactly represent on the hands what is being spoken and is mostly used for educational purposes.

Members of Australian suburbs who speak languages other than English will appreciate that Australian Sign Language is free of spoken language. Australian sign language fits any other spoken language as well as it does English.

The deaf form their own 'community ' in the same sense as Italian, Vietnamese or Mandarin speakers. They share a history in Australia and a lore and mythology based on shared school experiences and their deaf clubs and social ties that go back one hundred years.

The emergence of awareness of the notion of a community of deaf people and the related idea of 'deafness' as a socially constructed way of life in the community is new. Realisation of the power of this notion to give deaf people a pride in their achievements and their potential may well be the most significant event in the history of deaf people. As a result, deaf people are accessing better secondary and higher educational opportunities.

This education plus more access to interpreting services and increasing use of technology, such as computer-based telecommunications will provide opportunities not previously possible.

Sydney Distance Education, Primary School provides for Australian students who meet certain criteria for receiving instruction by mail. Some students live in isolated areas not near a government school; some travel with their families within the nation while others may reside overseas for a specific period of time.

While it is obvious that much attention is given the migrant population going to regular public schools, certainly equal time is allocated to these students who have temporarily exited the public school system. The Sydney Distance Education School represents a unique form of teaching in which the teacher and student are separated from each other. Lessons are provided weekly of specially designed leaflets, audio tapes, booklets, kits and videos. They are delivered primarily by mail, although opportunities may exist for a limited amount of phone, facsimile and personal contact.

Normally an initial visit to the school permits assessment of child's basic skills and establishes rapport between parents, student and teacher. Parents in this scheme agree to be supervisors of their child's education and to return materials for correction in a timely fashion.

The learning program is designed to suit the specific needs of each child. This one-to-one relationship between student and teacher is conducive to quality learning and the bond between family and the teacher is meaningful and rewarding.

LIBRARIES

The New South Wales State Library is linked electronically to major cities on a global basis. The multicultural section began with ***language boxes***, sets of books in target languages sent to appropriate libraries within the state. The concept continues to flourish and the library has undertaken the task of transliteration of over forty-four languages represented in various suburbs and country areas. The multicultural librarian describes the process of computer cataloguing and scanning calligraphy to produce records of books, tapes and ephemera for easy access in any language. For example, a book published in Mandarin would have its normal call number followed by author's name and title of the book in pinyin and scanned calligraphy.

The main library in Sydney has sophisticated equipment and support services: a computer that reads books aloud for the blind, telephones for the deaf, free use of computers, research services for family history and audio and video cassette players.

The State Library serves branches throughout the state and provides enrichment programs. Such experiences allow children with different language backgrounds and varying levels of proficiency to enjoy and experiment with literary forms. An outstanding example is the Write to Read Program. In this instance, the children interact with well-known writers and illustrators in 90-minute workshops.

Recently, author Diana Kidd shared her method of characterisation with fifth-grade students of a multicultural school in Sydney guiding them in writing their own experiential sentences and stories. This endeavour provides a supportive atmosphere and establishes public libraries as centres for writing as well as reading. Such well-planned projects encourage literacy through literary simulation.

TECHNOLOGY

Inaburra High School media training began with a single video camera according to director, Kell Daniels. Now , as part of a combined English and media course, students learn to generate ideas, organise sequences, write scripts, plan scenes, select visuals for an edit decision list and add graphic design or special effects to the final master tape.

Students use a variety of technical skills, all related to future needs. Computers are used to produce titles and rolling credits. Computer-generated animation provides special effects similar to those seen on television.

Use of video to produce brief public service announcements, commercials, drama, documentaries and music videos involve close team work and result in a completed product to share with family, friends and students in other schools or even in other countries.

Inaburra High School has a closed-circuit television control room and studio. Director Kell Daniels, developed the department since its initial course, using one video camera and 'crash editing' using two play-and-record VCR machines.

Ten percent of students study media subjects each year. The course is open to students in Years 7 through 12. Years 7 and 8 are introductory courses to acquaint students with handling the equipment; theory will come later. Years 9 and 10 have a certificate course. They learn the technical aspects of electronic equipment maintenance, basic lighting, principles of sound and generally learn to 'run the control room'. Year 11 students learn basic production skills, how to develop ideas, create stories for television and the techniques of slanting . Year 12 students produce their own videos. These students offer peer assistance and are a resource for the school's communication needs. For example, if a parent group wants to have a video filmed of a presentation or an adult education course, students can provide this service.

An important part of the course is the concept of ***point of view***. The story may be told by the camera person who, with a camera angle may make one person seem more important than another; the story may be told by the tape editor who only includes specific bits of information; or the story might be told by the script writer with material weighted in favour of one view over another. Propaganda is explored truthfully and students can subsequently make better decisions.

Media students at Inaburra High School learn to express their own points of view and the concerns of their generation. This experience will equip them to cope with the technological environment they will experience upon graduation.

McArthurs Girls High School has a substantial computer department that accommodates speakers of other languages. Students can select idioms or nursery rhymes to illustrate using a computer paint program. The resulting animations show a good sense of humour and fine English comprehension. Students learn other computer skills as well and comment on the computer terminology they have learned through these assignments.

Computers at home can make a difference for students who want to use the full capacity of various built-in programs. Using a word-processing program, students who have not yet developed fine motor skills due to dysgraphia, can write sentences, use spell check and print the results. Unknown words in a reading book can be typed in and they are pronounced by the speech synthesiser. Children who are unable to produce satisfying art work can use a paint program to draw meaningful graphs or sophisticated designs...and then print them out.

A computer can allow a child to show the teacher what he knows for the first time. Even math assignments become easier. The student types the problem and answer and prints the result.

Direct Broadcasting Network is learning by satellite. Commencing in May 1993, the network was given responsibility by the government to pilot teaching of Japanese in primary schools by interactive satellite television. The Japanese language programming is developed and produced by DBN and will be telecast to fourth grade classrooms in two states. Each program is supported in the classroom with student work sheets developed for the series. Additionally, DBN is producing and broadcasting teacher support programs and a teacher's manual.

In 1993, ***Open Nihongo*** is for year four students. The project is expected to develop a new Japanese series in 1994 teaching year 5 students and in 1995 a new series for year 6 students. DBN envisage each year the previous years series will be re-broadcast ***live*** to new students coming through.

Japanese via interactive satellite TV is perceived as the first step in making more languages available in the classroom using this technology. Satellite provides a successful method of overcoming shortages of teacher resources, ever present in the languages area. Other new languages such as Indonesian and Chinese are on the horizon to be developed and delivered into the classroom.

Open Nihongo in 1993 has been limited to fifty schools to enable a manageable evaluation of the project

CONCLUSION

More positive results are being reported from use of video and other technologies. The magazine, ***Teaching Exceptional Children***, printed an article about use of video resumes to assist secondary handicapped students to seek employment. A seven-point list suggests ways to gain sponsorship for this project in other venues.

More evidence is available highlighting need for video production to enhance comprehension skills. We can keep materials more relevant to students' interest level by using television.

This concept is brought out by Fran Byrnes, educational script writer for SBS television. She tells us that ability of multicultural groups to understand English is greatly under estimated.

' While it is true many could not read English well or participate actively in conversation, most can use subliminal skills from years of television viewing in their own language. Patronising and lengthy explanations are not needed as viewers recognise how film and television drama work. Limited proficiency in a new language must not be misconstrued as similarly limited cognitive ability.'

Television would seem to interface well with almost any subject or language. Students at any ability level can convey the message of their choice. Should we not identify television as a powerful and familiar ***instructional tool***?

Aren't we all literate in television?

A Chinese folktale tells of a child who cannot go to school because a greedy person has stolen her pen but when he wrote, it only painted evil. A benevolent spirit takes pity and returns her magic pen.

Is it that television has...just as in the Chinese folktale...become the ***magic paintbrush for us all?***

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Characteristics of English Reading Instruction for the Visually Impaired on the College Level

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1. Introduction

As E.B. Huey aptly stated that reading is "the most remarkable specific performance that civilization has learned in all its history," (Huey, 1908, in Singer and Ruddel, 1985) reading is the most important of the four -- listening, speaking, reading and writing -- skills, particularly in English learning as a foreign language.

Most Japanese now receive six years of junior/senior high school English teaching. This means English is being taught as a foreign language to the students who are between the ages thirteen and eighteen in a formal school setting. Students on college or university levels are supposed to acquire reading skills in English. Nevertheless, the present state of affairs is not satisfactory, especially for visually impaired students.

Our students, who are majoring in acupuncture/moxibustion, physical therapy, or computer science are required to read all kinds of English -- from textbooks to medical documents, to manuals on science and computer technology. Therefore, the teaching of English as a foreign language has to be geared to reading rather than for general interest.

For blind students, as well as partially sighted students, reading in English as a foreign language is a far more difficult process than sighted students have ever imagined. The students' background knowledge and vocabulary are limited, and their word retrieval is slow. They usually read English laboriously by using braille or large-print books.

Given the difficulties visually impaired students have with reading English, I will discuss some characteristics of English reading instruction. The following questions are asked:

1) What are the characteristics of the learners?
2) How are the teaching materials and instructional aids used?
3) What are the reading strategies?

4) What are the characteristics of reading instruction?

2. Characteristics of the Learners

Tsukuba College of Technology, established in 1991, is the first three-year-college in Japan for the visually impaired. The main purposes of the College are to provide an environment in which all visually impaired students may progress towards a realization of their potential creative interests, and to foster in them a sense of personal worth and social commitment.

As of April 1st in 1993, 107 students are enrolled in the Division for the Visually Impaired. The following table shows the present numbers and distribution by departments.

year	Freshman		Sophomore		Senior	
department	PS	B	PS	B	PS	B
A/M	15(8)	2(0)	11(5)	8(3)	13(9)	4(3)
PT	11(5)	---	11(3)	---	9(3)	---
IP	6(2)	1(0)	3(3)	3(2)	3(1)	7(2)
Subtotals	32 (15)	3(0)	25(11)	11(5)	25(13)	11(5)
Totals	35 (15)		36(15)		36(18)	

note:
PS = partially sighted students
B = blind students
A/M = Department of Acupuncture/Moxibustion
PT = Department of Physical Therapy
IP = Department of Information Processing
figures in parentheses indicate the numbers of female students

The data show that about 25 % of the students are blind and the rest are partially sighted. Each English class is made up of from 6 to 11 students, with blind and partially sighted students mixed.

3. Teaching Materials and Instructional Aids

3. 1 Teaching materials

Students with visual impairments may need to learn to read using different materials. They are braille books and large-type books. First of all, let me introduce these materials and what they are.

3. 1.1 Braille books

Braille is a coded system of "cells" containing from one to six dots. Grade 2 Braille, which is the most popular popular because it requires much less space, makes considerable use of contractions and shortened forms of words. Learning to read braille is much more difficult than learning to read print, for braille contractions are not logical and do not correspond to phonetic rules. Moreover, the speed of reading braille is much slower than reading print by the sighted. It is reported that the average blind high school students in the United States read around 86-90 words per minute. It seems reasonable to assume that Japanese blind students, even on the college level, are much slower than the blind high school students in the United States. However, it is reported that the reading of braille requires processes very similar to those used when the sighted person learns to read print.

Braille books are much larger and take up a great deal of storage space. What is more, it used to be time-consuming to produce braille books. But now, thanks to modern computer technology, microcomputers, using special software, can translate standard print to braille, the Grade 2 system, and can emboss it on paper much faster.

3.1.2 Large-type books

One method of aiding the partially sighted students to read print are large-print books. Large-print books are simply books printed in larger size type. Type sizes for the visually impaired range up to 30-point type, but 18-point and 24-point are the most popular. Texts with enlarged print size allow partially sighted students to read the same material as sighted students. The major difficulties with large-type books are similar to the problems involved with braille books. They are of limited availability and a great deal of space is required to store them.

As is mentioned later, most of the partially sighted use their own vision as they read. And *The New York Times* publishes a large-type edition tabloid newspaper for the visually impaired. It is published once a week and is three times the size of the regular newspaper type.

The following shows 18-point and 24-point print:

The codes are based on just two numbers, the digits one and zero.

(18-point type)

The codes are based on just two numbers, the digits one and zero.

(24-point type)

3.2 Instructional aids

In recent years an explosion in technology, especially in the field of computer technology, has resulted in new electronic devices for use in the instruction of the visually impaired. Among the first of these innovations is the Kurzweil Personal Reader.

3.2.1 Kurzweil Personal Reader

This is a small computer that converts print into speech. By placing the material face down on a scanner, the visually impaired hear the material being "read" by an electronic voice at normal speech rate, that is, the Kurzweil Personal Reader uses synthetic speech to convert printed material into spoken English. Synthetic speech is the production of sound—of phonemes into words—by means of a computer. The process allows us to convert written words into speech, so that the visually impaired can listen to books, newspapers, even typed letters and manuscripts.

A major advantage of the Kurzweil Personal Reader is that it allows the visually impaired to read at a level at least as fast as human speech.

3.2.2 Computer-assisted instruction

Many texts have been produced on microcomputer disks. An advantage of many computers is that when students either print out or view this material on a microcomputer screen, they can adjust the size of the type.

Future technology, I believe, will add other methods for reading.

For example, in the future speech synthesizers will become less expensive and more commonly available. This will allow for instant voice-to-print and print-to-voice translations of documents.

3.2.3 Magnifying devices

By adjusting a lens, the user can magnify printed material within the range of the machine. The enlargement appears on a television screen, on which size, brightness, and contrast can be adjusted.

4. Reading Strategies in a Foreign Language

Research in second language reading has shown that reading models fall into one of three types: bottom-up, top-down, or interactive. The first two models, bottom-up and top-down, seem to be rare in the strict sense of the word, as referred to in second language literature, and they have quickly given way to interactive models. However, bottom-up and top-down models play an important part in the case of reading strategies of the visually impaired. In this section reading strategies related to the bottom-up and top-down models will be discussed in more detail.

4.1 Bottom-up model

In bottom-up reading, the reader begins with the written text (the bottom), and constructs meaning from the letters, words, phrases, and sentences found within the text and then processes the text in a series of stages.

The bottom-up model analyzes reading as a process in which small chunks of text are absorbed, analyzed, and gradually added to the next chunks until they become meaningful. Clearly, this is a text-driven model of comprehension. Bottom-up model has not been favored by second language reading specialists, but it may provide insights into the approaches of visually impaired second language readers. In fact, for them there are difficulties to do with [the] English language itself -- what we might call, text-based difficulties.

4.2 Top-down model

The top-down model moves from the top, the higher-level mental stages, down to the text itself. In this model, the reading process is driven by the readers' mind at work on the text, namely, this is a reader-driven model.

Readers use general knowledge of the world or of particular text components to make intelligent guesses about what might come next in the text; the readers sample only enough of the text to confirm or reject these guesses.

As is often cited in second and foreign language reading literature, the theories of Kenneth Goodman and Frank Smith are prime examples of top-down views of reading. Goodman talks of reading as "a psycholinguistic guessing game," in ways very similar to Smith (Goodman, 1967).

This model argues that readers use four processes in reading: predicting, sampling, confirming, and correcting. First, readers make predictions about the grammatical structure in a text, using their knowledge of the language and supplying semantic concepts to get meaning from the structure. Then, they sample the print to confirm their predictions.

In sum, the top-down view of second language reading is that the better the reader is able to make correct predictions, the less confirming via the text is necessary.

At this point, then, it would be useful to consider this model in terms of schema theory. According to the schema theorists, the reader's schema is what the reader brings to the printed page, that is, previously acquired knowledge structures. Schemata guide comprehension, and helping readers organize their prior information and apply it to what is being read is critical to improving their comprehension. Good comprehenders use their knowledge of the world (semantic context) and their knowledge of how language works (syntactic context) to construct meaning from text. (Dechant, 1991).

To summarize, reading is not a passive, but rather an active process. In other words, proficient reading is an active process in which the reader produces hypotheses about the message of the text.

So far in my examination of reading models, I have tended to emphasize the importance of the top-down model. Then how can this top-down model be incorporated in actual reading instruction?

5. Characteristics of Reading Instruction

5.1 Prereading instruction as schema activation

A significant difference between the visually impaired and the sighted is that the visually impaired have difficulty with developing background information. Then how should we encourage the students to enrich their prior knowledge?

Of all things a teacher can do, the stage of prereading instruction is of vital importance. The most important aspect of this preteaching instruction is that of providing those enriching experiences, direct or indirect, which fill in the students' present knowledge and expand their personal schema or background information.

In short, the major purpose of prereading instruction should be schema activation. In the preteaching stage, according to Dechant (1991), the teacher can aid [the] students in developing their personal schema by:

> 1. Setting purposes for reading. This often takes the form of providing objectives.
> 2. Having students read about similar content in other books or reading from other books to the students prior to reading the assignment.
> 3. Delivering a short lecture on the subject before the students read.
> 4. Having students preview what the reading material is about. Previewing, especially of expository materials, provides an opportunity to review prior knowledge. As students preview, the teacher might have them discuss what they already know, write key concepts on the board, and speculate about what they might expect from the reading.
> 5. Asking students questions prior to the reading that require them to examine what they already know about the topic. Questioning helps the students to make predictions about the text.

Now let us look at a longer passage and see how the top-down model and reader's schema work.

EXAMPLE A

Programs must also be converted to a language a computer will understand. Computer programs are written in numerical codes that the central processing unit, or the CPU can translate. The codes are based on just two numbers, the digits one and zero. Computer operation is based on turning the transistors, which contain information, on and off at different times. Therefore, the

computer's instructions are written in a series of "turn-on" and "turn-off" commands. A one turns a transistor on, and a zero turns it off. Commands in this form are called machine language. Machine language instructions can be built into the computer. Computers that are programmed in machine language perform their operations very quickly and accurately.

from *General Science*. (1989) Harcourt Brace Javanovich

This expository material is from a textbook for the students of information processing. Suppose that you are teaching this material, what would you do to have your students activate schema? Unfortunately, one of the most common ways to teach reading this kind of text is to gloss, or explain word by word, and/or sentence by sentence. Assuming that the visually impaired can read individual words, either in braille or large-type print, using the bottom-up reading strategies, their first task is to make correct predictions about the content of the text, and to grasp the whole meaning of the material. What, then, should the teachers do to have the students make intelligent guesses about the message of the text?

As noted above, teachers can present information in an organized manner at preteaching stage by setting purposes for reading, or by having students read about similar content in other books, or by delivering a short lecture on the subject, or by having students preview what the reading material is about, and so on.

In EXAMPLE A, the topic is about computer programs, more precisely, computer language. Therefore, prior to being given the text, the readers should be introduced to a passage such as the following:

Computers perform a task one step at a time. Therefore, computer programs must be written in the order in which each operation is to be performed. Sequential programming instructs the computer to perform specific steps in a specific order. Sequential programming is common to all computers.

Then, the students can produce hypotheses about the message of the text. The students can guess that the text is about, in the first, computers, and then about computer programs. Consequently, a few introductory remarks in addition to the above passage about the content of the material would help the students with activating their personal "computer language schema" concerning the text. There are also other instructional techniques that develop background information for aiding comprehension of expository materials.

5.2 Preteaching vocabulary

There is little doubt that to master a content area one must learn its key concepts, in other words, the vocabulary that corresponds to the key concepts. Needless to say, to master the vocabulary lays the groundwork for a successful comprehension of the text.

As a pre-reading technique, it is fairly crucial to teach key vocabulary words for activating readers' prior knowledge, and encourage them to activate their personal schema. The real problem with the visually impaired is that they recognize isolated words inaccurately and too slowly. To begin with, knowledge of vocabulary presupposes knowledge of the schemata which a vocabulary item could activate. Merely presenting a list of new or unfamiliar vocabulary items does not guarantee the learning of the word or the concept behind the word.

Below are guidelines for pre-teaching words :

1. Teach the significant key concept words for the selection.
2. Thoroughly teach the words.
3. Relate the words being taught to the concepts needed to understand the selection.
4. Teach the words in semantically and topically related sets.
5. Do more repetition, more drill, and more practice whether they are using braille or large-type print.

Now, let me give you an example using EXAMPLE A. The key concept words in this material would be **program, computer program, numerical codes, digit, turn-on, turn-off,** and **command**. All these words have quite different meanings and usages in the text from those in other ordinary texts. So we have to teach the students these key vocabulary words in semantically and topically related sets. After that, the students would be able to activate their prior knowledge and their personal schemata.

5. 3 Translation into Japanese

Although often stated firmly in many ESL/EFL reading literature that only the target language should be spoken in class, judicious use of any student's first language, in our case, Japanese, can ease the affective barriers that sometimes arise. Because blind students cannot benefit from pictures, gestures, or the actions of other students, a few translated key words could allow the students to understand the text assigned. Moreover, this can encourage the students to develop background knowledge, that is, content schemata. Therefore, I believe that we should not be too rigid in the use of first language.

6. Conclusions

6.1 Myths, or Misconceptions, and Facts

6.1.1 Braille or large-type materials?

Most visually impaired students use braille or large-type books as their primary method of reading depending upon their visual impairments. Traditionally, there was a great deal of resistance to having the visually impaired use sight in reading. There have been many myths about this issue. For example, even some authorities claimed that if partially sighted people use their eyes too much, their sight will deteriorate. Only in rare conditions is this true; visual ability can be improved through training and use. Strong lenses, holding books close to the eyes, and using the eyes as much as possible cannot harm the vision.

6.1.2 Good listeners?

A second myth is that the blind automatically develop a superior sense of hearing that makes them good listeners. Good listening is primarily a learned skill. Although many visually impaired students actually develop good listening skills, this is the result of work on their part. This is not automatic. Blind students' ability to perceive individual sounds is no different than sighted students'.

6.2 They can learn and can be taught.

The visually impaired are not helpless and dependent. With good learning experiences and teaching environments, the visually impaired can be as independent and possess as strong a personality as the sighted.

In the ESL/EFL reading classroom, the teacher's attitude toward visually impaired students is the key to their successful reading behavior. Even though they will not be able to participate in all classroom activities in the same way as their sighted peers, and it takes longer to read braille and large-type materials, English reading should be taught entirely within the framework of the curricula applied in mainstream schools.

To conclude, visually impaired students can be taught to read English as a foreign language if the techniques and materials are adapted to capitalize on their ability. I wish our students to be the most effective readers possible.

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TEACHING READING IN REFUGEE CAMPS ON THE THAI-KAMPUCHEAN BORDER

by

Rita Yost Martin

This is not a research paper filled with statistics but an account of one person's experiences teaching in different cultures in developing countries.

Prior to coming to Asia, I spent two years as a Peace Corps volunteer in Sierra Leone, West Africa. I was stationed in a remote area where I provided in-service training to untrained teachers in five bush schools. This experience made me decide to continue in development work. When I was offered a position with an NGO to work with Khmer refugees, I accepted although I had no knowledge of the Khmer language and only a little of the situation in Southeast Asia.

I suspect one of the deciding factors in my being offered the position was the answer I gave to the question, "How do you feel about working in a war zone?" At that time, fighting was still going on in the border areas of Kampuchea near Thailand. Shells occasionally landed on Thai soil and the area on both sides of the border was mined in many places. I replied that I assumed that the agency had evacuation plans if things became too difficult. That seemed to settle the matter and I soon found myself in Thailand.

Three years later at a conference in Bangkok, my dinner partner asked, "What do you see as the biggest difference between Asians and Africans?" Strange as it may seem, I found it difficult to answer. Beyond the obvious cultural differences, I have been more impressed by how much we are all alike. Everyone I have met has shared my needs for food, clothing and shelter; my psychological needs for security, approval, friendship; and has shown the same gamut of emotion from love to hate, joy to sorrow. I have found good folk and bad, wise men and fools in every country and in every level of society. I believe that to generalize or stereotype limits one's understanding of individuals and countries. And I have come to realize that that philosophy has had much to do with the way I have discharged my teaching responsibilities at home and especially abroad, and has shaped the content of this paper.

I have observed that, in addition to the similarities inherent in our common humanity, we all learn language in the same way. The need to communicate is present at birth in the infant's cry for food. As these primitive efforts are successful, the child becomes more socialized and the response of others in its immediate environment encourages further efforts. Language develops as the child needs or wants to communicate with those around it. The process is the same regardless of country or language. So I have accepted Hansen's five elements of language acquisition as she applies them to the teaching of reading and writing. Might it not logically follow that teaching strategies that are effective in English could be equally effective in other languages that have a phoneme/grapheme correspondence? Moreover, I have not read any literature that would indicate the human brain is country specific. Thus, good teaching should be good teaching in any country provided the cultural context is considered.

After that rather lengthy introduction, let me describe Ban Thad camp where I first worked with the Khmer. It was situated only two kilometers from the Thai-Kampuchean border but, more significantly, only 200 meters from Site II, a resistance camp of 250,000 people. Although technically not a military base, armed soldiers were frequently there to visit their families and for other unspecified purposes.

Ban Thad was a small camp of less than 10,000 people and was administered by the United Nations High Commission for Refugees. It was established as home for Vietnamese Boat People. When I arrived in November 1989 many of the Vietnamese had been resettled and the population was primarily Khmer. There were four schools supported by the agency. The Khmer school was the largest with approximately 600 students in Grade One through Form Three. There were small schools for Vietnamese, Khmer Krom and Chinese. The Chinese school shared the compound with the Khmer school and a number of students attended both as both schools operated on two sessions a day. The school buildings were simple bamboo and thatch structures. Each room was furnished with wooden desks and benches, a chalkboard and a table for the teacher.

The first thing I did was to make observations in all classrooms. I had no interpreter so I did not understand anything that was said, but three things quickly became obvious:

1. All teaching followed the traditional rote method.
2. Most of the teachers had no method of classroom management except the stick.
3. Instructional time was not well utilized.

Lacking an interpreter, I was limited in what I could do, so until I could find someone, I decided to visit the education programs in Site II and Khao I Dang. I wanted to learn what was being done by other NGO's and see what resources were available. It was especially important to coordinate with Khao I Dang because it was administered by UNHCR and the agency for which I was working ran the education program there also. Moreover, the possibility was ever present that the people in Ban Thad might be transferred to Khao I Dang.

The objective of all agencies and programs was to give the refugees skills that would be helpful to them if they were repatriated. For the education programs, that meant preparing teachers through training in effective lesson planning, preparing teaching aids from local materials, and managing a classroom as well as improving their content knowledge.

The teachers were eager to begin training so I decided to hold a workshop on the making of teaching aids. Though there were more pressing issues to be considered, I decided on the teaching aid workshop for several reasons. First, the headmaster had been interpreting for me and such a format would allow him to return to his own duties once the instructions were given. I thought the relaxed atmosphere would put everyone at their ease and allow me to know them. Content was non-threatening and by making something they could use in their own classrooms, everyone could feel a sense of accomplishment. I made samples of several time lines to show how they could be used at all levels and for all subjects. One showed a pictorial sequence of events in a Khmer fable for a primary class. These were offered as suggestions only and some teachers made them while others worked on something of their own choice. The teachers enjoyed themselves and each produced a relevant aid. We were off to a good start.

One thing I noticed then and later was that there was a decided feeling of superiority among the secondary teachers over the primary teachers. Unfortunately, since I was the only one delivering instruction, my schedule did not have time enough to offer separate classes and a number of the secondary teachers eventually opted out of the training.

About this time, my IRA publications began to catch up with me and I learned of the contest IRA was sponsoring for children's art to be used on the covers of The Reading Teacher. I got the materials, explained the project to the teachers and let them take over. Can you imagine our pleasure when the winners were announced several months later to learn that the work of one of our students was among those chosen to illustrate the article on the contest? No one minded that we were not among the top winners. I wish you could have seen the faces of mother and son when we presented a copy of the magazine with the boy's art work in it.

I finally found an excellent interpreter and was able to begin the program. I tried to involve the teachers in the planning but whether it was reticence on their part or an error on mine, they were not responsive so I set it up as I thought best. I was told there was a cultural reluctance to participate because it might be interpreted as discourteous to the teacher to make suggestions and so it was difficult to develop cooperation in learning. I was pleased that before I left the camps, I was able to make some progress in that direction.

I developed a three strand training program. The first was in-service for current teachers and beginning courses for prospective teachers. Subjects were limited to the basics: lesson planning, classroom management, making of teaching aids and simple facts of child development. The second was more content oriented and covered such subjects as world geography (beginning with southeast Asia), and primary science topics such as the solar system, plant and animal life, and ecology. The final strand was for those who wished to become teacher supervisors and covered principles of supervision, evaluation and foundations of education. These three strands were not independent. Everyone took stand one. The teachers-in- training also took strand two and the teacher-supervisors took all three strands.

After the program was established and I began to feel more sure of myself, I included a course in the teaching of reading. We began with a discussion of the meaning of "reading" and they were lead to see that reading without comprehension is only making sounds. I also did a small demonstration to show that the rote method for many children was not reading, but memorization.

Since my knowledge of Khmer was non-existent, I then enlisted the teachers' help in understanding it. I would explain the purpose and demonstrate a teaching strategy and then ask, "Is this a technique that could be used with Khmer?" I cannot recall a single instance where it could not be used though sometimes it needed to be modified. For example, Khmer is primarily a monosyllabic or bisyllabic language and each vowel has its place around the consonant, either right, left, over or under. This I learned when I showed cards with word stems that used with beginning consonants formed different words. They used a card with vowels in the four positions around a square opening through which they ran a strip with different consonants which formed different words.

Khmer reads left to right, top to bottom but there is no separation between words. There is the lbah or khan which is roughly the same as a period or full stop though it does not appear as often as those signs in English. I studied it briefly so I have only a superficial knowledge but it seemed to me that with its thirty-three consonants, fourteen vowels plus diphthongs, Khmer had a more perfect phoneme/grapheme relationship and fewer exceptions than English. But whether I am correct or not, the point I would make is that it is possible to transfer teaching strategies from one culture or language to another if you stress the similarities and respect the differences.

I think there would be more certainty of this when teaching about comprehension and purpose since most of us would agree that these two aspects of reading apply regardless of culture, language, or orthographic systems. When we discussed comprehension, we looked first at the different levels of comprehension. This was the most difficult part for the Khmer to grasp coming from a rote-learning background. We translated passages from an ESL book and photocopied them when we considered "purpose". We discussed, then did them together as a large group guided activity. These covered a variety of purposes such as following directions, reading a map, and reading for information.

For each lesson, I wrote a lesson plan using the format the teachers themselves were being taught. They were given copies. Hopefully these would be a model for them as they learned about lesson plans and would also serve as accurate notes for the lesson in reading methodology

Just as the program was beginning to bear fruit, we received word that the camp was to close. In September 1990, the Khmer were moved to Khao I Dang. Ban Thad was closed and bulldozed. I moved with them to KID but there was already a Teacher-Trainer in charge and UNHCR would not approve another. I agreed to serve as a volunteer until something should open up. The advantage to this arrangement was that I had no responsibility for the over all program and was free to develop my own projects.

On arriving in KID, I was asked to visit the schools and make recommendations. Since reading is my first interest, I focused on the libraries. Each primary school had a library of several hundred books. Sadly, the only ones in Khmer were copies of their textbooks which were printed in camp. The rest were in English or French, neither of which any of the children spoke. Believing that reading is a skill like any other that must be practiced to be mastered, I looked for ways to get more books in Khmer. I came up with two ideas.

The first was to take an old reading series from the states and make small books of them. There were many copies in each library and the illustrations were very attractive, a sharp contrast to the books they were using. The stories were of a variety of genres. By taking two books, we could mount the pictures along with photocopies of the Khmer translation and make a number of small story books still retaining all the illustrations. We also found some Thai stories in large picture format and we mounted them to make Big Books. We were careful to select stories to which the children could relate or which were informational. This, however, was time consuming even after we set up an assembly line of teacher - trainers. It was worth the effort when you saw how eagerly each set of books was received.

To get many books quickly, we launched a Young Authors program similar to the ones run in the states. The objective was to have each of the 4,000 students make a book which would be placed in the their own school library.

In November 1990, the project was presented to and accepted by the staff of the Teacher-Training Center. Two training sessions were held with the trainers to

1. Explain the project and underlying philosophy.
2. Demonstrate beginning writing activities.
3. Teach how to make several kinds of books.

Since traditional teaching emphasizes learning by rote and copying, the first priority was to help the teachers understand that aspects of language such as listening and speaking must be included in reading instruction and that pupils must have the opportunity to develop those skills, since reading and writing are related to them.

The writing activities were to be simple, daily experiences.

In Classes 1, 2, and 3 the daily writing activity was to be teacher directed and involve concrete objects familiar to the students such as a cup. The teacher would display the cup and lead a brief discussion: What is this? How do we use it? Can you drink other things from it? Could you use it for something other than drinking? The children would then draw and label a cup. If writing ability was limited, they could copy from the board a sentence they would dictate to the teacher. In the case of a child just entering school, the teacher could write for him.

As writing ability increased, the assignment would become more difficult. Grade Two could write a descriptive phrase (a big red cup) or sentence (I drink milk from my big red cup.). Grade Three might write a more detailed composition. (I bought my red cup in the market because I liked the color.) Classes 4, 5 and 6 had already had regular composition assignments so the emphasis was on encouraging original expression of ideas. After a brief discussion about feelings, observation skills, etc. The children would write one or two sentences of their own.

It was emphasized that these activities were to be done daily.

The Teacher-Trainers were supposed to train the teachers in the schools under their supervision. It soon became apparent that they were something less than sure about the project. With the Teacher-Trainers assisting me, I conducted a series of workshops within each school to try to get the project back on track.

Since it was near the end of term, we decided to have the students make the books for the Young Authors Project. We announced the guidelines for the books at different grade levels.

Grades One and Two were asked to make simple word or number books following the format of the original writing activity.

Grade Three teachers were given the option of making similar books or, if their students were more advanced, of having them draw pictures and write a brief story.

Grades Four, Five and Six were asked to follow a more sophisticated format. Each book was to have a title page. In addition, Grades Five and Six were to have Tables of Contents, and Grade 6 was to include a glossary of five to ten words.

It was suggested that the pupils of Grade 4 write autobiographies as that would be an easy theme and sequencing skills could be incorporated into their regular classroom work. It was difficult to persuade the teachers that an activity such as this could be considered as instruction because it was "not in the book".

Class Five was asked to compile an anthology of their own compositions which had been written for their regular composition class.

Grade Six was asked to write an original piece of fiction.

All books were to include illustrations.

We were fortunate that the United Nations Border Relief Operation (UNBRO) had an over supply of heavy paper and colored markers which they offered to education programs in all the camps. A Lutheran congregation in the United States had sent us several hundred book bags filled with school supplies which we used for prizes.

When the books were completed, each teacher was to choose three from his/her own room to be entered into the final judging. From this group of over 200, there were to be chosen three Best-in-Camp. The culminating activity was a Young Authors Conference which was held at the Teacher Training Center. The children attending were those whose books had been selected by the teachers. Each child received a book bag. The authors of the Best-in-Camp winners each received a trade book from the States which had been translated into Khmer. The speaker was a young man who was a published author in Phnom Penh. After viewing all the books on display in the Central Library adjoining the Center, the children were served refreshments. On the following two days, all the children of the primary schools were scheduled into the library to see the books.

At the evaluation session following the conference, the teacher- trainers all felt that it had been a huge success. In fact they were all for doing it every term, but even if I had been so inclined, the costs and logistics of the project, though modest by the world's standards were high for a refugee program. While I felt that much had been learned from our efforts, it was obvious that most of the teachers and teacher-trainers should have received more instruction before inaugurating it.

The real value lay not in the results that were achieved by the children but in being able to introduce new ideas and new teaching strategies in a way that the teachers could see was interesting and could arouse their students' enthusiasm.

As a result of this project, I undertook a small pilot project working with three teachers who volunteered to work with me to implement the concept of integrated language arts. I met with them weekly for discussion and to offer a series of strategies for them to try, simple things, such as posting word lists to help with original writing, making instruction more child-centered, and using games to change the pace of instruction. We again stressed the fact that all areas of language should be taught as a whole. Plans for repatriation upset the routine of life and attendance was spotty so good base line data could not be gathered. The teachers offered the purely subjective evaluation that the children were working harder and they themselves were enjoying teaching more. Further proof that good techniques work in different cultures.

Again admitting to my ignorance of the Khmer language, I would like to recount one other small incident. The head of the UNBRO education program asked me to read and comment on the curriculum that they were using. It had been developed by several well-educated French Khmer. The first thing that jumped from the pages was that it was heavily loaded with study of Pali and Sanskrit. Now, it is true that there are strong influences from those two ancient languages but I felt that this was not at all pertinent for the teachers in the camps. These teachers were for the most part, young men and women with only a secondary education at best and the majority of them had less than that. In view of the fact that they had absolutely no professional training, there were many things that would have been of more immediate help to them. In that curriculum, there was no mention made of how to write a lesson plan. Of thirteen courses, something like eight were devoted to the ancient languages. And yet these academics, by virtue of their education were accepted as authorities in a field that they knew little about. This was not the first time, I encountered a situation such as that. Too often, I have worked with directors of programs who have never been in a primary classroom but who refused to take into account the experiences of those of us who were actually working with the problems.

What are we to conclude from these varied experiences? May I suggest that as educators we celebrate our shared humanity, build on our common strengths, and respect our differences. The world is now in the Technological Age which links us more intimately than ever before. We can no longer think only in terms of national interest but are well on our way to becoming one global community. Cooperation in areas such as the environment are essential and can only be achieved as we learn to use our different languages for effective communication. My experiences are limited but as I meet others who share this view, I feel privileged to be in a profession that is positioned to influence the world so profoundly.

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Differences in Kana and Kanji Processing by Native Japanese Speakers and Non-Native English-Speaking Learners of Japanese

- A Summary of the Experiments -

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Do the mechanisms used by native speakers of Japanese in processing Kana and Kanji differ from those employed by non-native speakers?

In comparison tasks of numerals, native Japanese speakers processed numerals in Hiragana faster than those in Katakana (Tamaoka, Leong & Hatta, 1991). This result changes if the words in Katakana are seen commonly in daily life. Due to orthographic recoding, loan-words which are usually printed in Katakana are processed faster than the same words presented in Hiragana (Leong & Tamaoka, in press). However, when words do not appear in their usual script type (e.g., loan-words from the alphabetic languages in Hiragana, and two-Kanji compound words in Katakana), recoding speed changes again depending on script type.

Examining non-native Japanese speakers who were learning the Japanese language, the previous study (Hatta, Katoh & Kirsner, 1984 using Australian university students) found some differences in Kana processing between native and non-native Japanese speakers. Hatta et al. indicated that there is no difference between Hiragana and Katakana in processing speed when non-native Japanese speakers process alphabetic loan-words which are usually presented in Katakana. Based on the type of words presented in Hiragana and Katakana, they attributed this tendency to an indistinct lexicon between Hiragana and Katakana since native Japanese speakers process Katakana words faster than the same ones in Hiragana due to the word superiority effects over Katakana presentation.

Unlike an alphabetical letter, a Japanese Kanji is drawn by many lines to make it look like a 'picture'. Given this, how does such visual complexity affect the processing of Kanji characters by native and non-native Japanese speakers? Complex Kanji are not always constructed from left to right like an alphabetically-stringed word. Some Kanji can be divided into top and bottom halves. Or some Kanji can even be produced by three elements arranged in a left to right or top to bottom division like compartments (see details in Tamaoka, 1991 & 1993). The 214 radicals which are commonly used for creating various Kanji can be classified into seven categories according to their spatial arrangement (Kaiho & Nomura, 1983). Therefore, unless readers can utilize a holistic approach (i.e., orthographic recoding as a whole word), two-dimensional scanning for Chinese characters (Hung & Wang, 1992) and Japanese Kanji should be required to analytically process these complex Kanji figures.

To address these questions, the present study conducted four experiments on Kana and Kanji processing in cross-linguistic situations with English-speaking learners of the Japanese language.

EXPERIMENTS

Subjects: The 32 non-native Japanese speakers were selected from the students enrolled in the Department of Asian Studies at the University of British Columbia, Canada: 16 students with 1-2 years of Japanese learning experience (M=22.50 years old) and 16 students with 2-3 years of Japanese learning experience (M=22.38 years old). In addition, 13 Japanese native speakers (M=20.92 years old) were also examined as a reference.

Procedure: All the subjects were tested individually. The session began with the presentation of some familiarization trails using the practice stimuli in each experiment. The subjects were required to press either the right or the left key, depending on which number was larger (Experiment #1) or whether the word existed in Japanese (Experiments #2-#4), as quickly and accurately as possible. The target numerals or word stayed on the screen until the subject pressed the right or the left key. When the space key was pressed following each response, the next stimulus appeared after a 700-millisecond interval. During the interval, an asterisk was shown on the fixation point to indicate the centre of the screen. Accuracy and length of time between the presentation of the target numeral or word and a subject's response were recorded for every stimulus.

Experiment #1 compared two numerals presented in Arabic, Kanji, Hiragana and Katakana. All three groups showed a similar pattern of processing speed based on script, in the decreasing order of

Arabic (665 msec for 1-2 year group, 595 msec for 2-3 year group and 532 msec for native speakers), Kanji (1077 msec for 1-2 year group, 926 msec for 2-3 year group and 574 msec for native Japanese speakers), Hiragana (1223 msec for 1-2 year group, 982 msec for 2-3 year group and 650 msec for native Japanese speakers) and Katakana (1517 msec for 1-2 year group, 1137 msec for 2-3 year group and 682 msec for native Japanese speakers). The script must have a similar effect on processing numerals for both native and non-native speakers of Japanese.

Experiment #2 examined differences in Kanji processing using simple versus complex bi-morphemic (two-Kanji) high-frequency words which appear in Japanese textbooks from Grades 1-4. Both groups of non-native speakers processed the complex bi-morphemic words (2064 msec for 1-2 year group, 1431 msec for 2-3 year group and 603 msec for native Japanese speakers) more slowly than the simple bi-morphemic words (1786 msec for 1-2 year group, 1307 msec for 2-3 year group and 621 msec for native Japanese speakers) while native speakers processed both simple and complex bi-morphemes with similar speed. The result supports the hypothesis that non-native speakers would process the complex bi-morphemic Kanji words analytically but would process the simple ones holistically.

Experiment #3 compared commonly-used loan-words borrowed from English and presented in Hiragana and Katakana. The non-native speakers showed no significant difference between Hiragana (2556 msec for 1-2 year group and 1918 msec for 2-3 year group) and Katakana (2560 msec for 1-2 year group and 1893 msec for 2-3 year group), but native speakers processed words in Katakana (624 msec) faster than the same words in Hiragana (726 msec). The orthographic visual effect was apparent among the native speakers, but not among the non-native speakers. Thus, for non-native speakers, it could be difficult to utilize orthographic recoding for processing loan-words presented in Katakana.

Experiment #4 examined the word frequency effect which is commonly observed among native speakers of any language. Both the native and non-native speakers of Japanese processed high frequency alphabetic loan-words (3322 msec for 1-2 year group, 2147 msec for 2-3 year group and 676 msec for native speakers) more quickly than low frequency words (4091 msec for 1-2 year group, 2693 msec for 2-3 year group and 790 msec for native speakers). Nonetheless, the processing speed for non-native speakers was much longer than for native speakers, so that it is unlikely that non-native speakers achieved their processing speed through an orthographic approach. Instead, the differences could be caused by a slower speed for Kana-to-sound recoding to activate the target words in the mental lexicon. Yet, processing speed was affected on the basis of word frequency. This result suggests that high frequency words should be more easily activated than low frequency ones for both native and non-native speakers.

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

As the previous study (Hatta, et al., 1984) indicated, the present study also found that English-speaking learners of Japanese processed alphabetic loan-words presented in Katakana (e.g., camera, coffee, piano) as quickly as the same words presented in Hiragana but that native speakers processed Katakana faster than Hiragana. Since the script difference in the two types of Kana affected the processing of loan-words even in the early reading stage of 10 year-old Japanese children (Tamaoka, Leong & Hatta, 1992 for a loan-word embedded in a sentence; Leong & Tamaoka, in press for a single loan-word), Kana processing may differ between native and non-native speakers in terms of the orthographic recoding related to the script types of Hiragana and Katakana.

For Kanji processing, the study indicated a difference between simple and complex Kanji among non-native speakers in processing speed of bi-morphemic words (two Kanji compound words) of a very high print frequency which appears in school textbooks from Grades 1-4. Unlike native Japanese speakers, non-native speakers took longer in lexical judgment to process complex Kanji than simple Kanji. This finding suggested that non-native speakers use an analytical approach to break complex Kanji into constructing elements, which was reflected in the longer processing speed. On the other hand, simple Kanji do not require an analytical approach for their constructing figures, so that they were processed faster than complex Kanji. This result further indicates a possible distinctive difference between native and non-native speakers in the processing mechanism used for complex Kanji.

In summary, the present study found two differences in Kana and Kanji processing between native and non-native Japanese speakers. First, complex Kanji characters, even in a very high frequency word, are processed analytically by non-native speakers, while native speakers processed all high frequency bi-morphemic words holistically regardless of Kanji complexity. Second, native speakers can employ the direct orthographic recoding to access the mental lexicon for alphabetic loan-words presented in Katakana, whereas non-native speakers may use phonological recoding for both Katakana and Hiragana.

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Asian Conference on Reading
Closing Speech

Tokyo, Japan, 5 August 1993

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[Greetings, Opening Comments]

My first statement will be an affirmation; it is intended to provide an assurance to the participants and audience at this Conference. Infants are born with sensory capacities to interact with their environment; and therefore, all infants are born with the ability to read. This is true whether the infants are born in Japan, Malaysia, Australia, India, or any other region of the world. I should modify this statement, to state that all infants with normal visual-perceptual abilities are born with the ability to read.

Within hours after birth, newborn infants have binocular coordination. They can use both eyes in a coordinated manner to visually follow a moving stimulus. Within days after birth babies use their vision to gaze at their visual environment. They search for consistent, predictable visual patterns. When they recognize their mothers' or caretakers' appearance and associate this with feeding and comfort, this consistent visual pattern assumes meaning for them. This meaning is the first instance of reading comprehension. Around 9 to 12 months of age if babies see an unfamiliar face or pattern they may show timidity, apprehension and withdrawal. The mechanisms of thinking and feeling develop concurrently with visual-perceptual skills in infancy.

At this point it may be helpful to refer to the terminology of signs and designates. Consistent, predictable visual patterns are signs; their associations and meaning are designates. In a general sense, reading is the recognition of consistent signs and the knowledge of their designates. [illustration?]

If you accept that infants are born with the ability to read, then why do we later identify certain students in the primary grades as "non-readers"? What has happened in the interim, between early infancy and early school years, so the ability to recognize signs and to know designates has not transferred to the graphic signs of their oral language? As you know, there are many different orthographies that "sign" or script the world's languages; however there is no one "ideal" orthography. Each has advantages and disadvantages.

Oral language skills are preliminary to, and critical for, the acquisition of reading and writing skills. That is another "truism". There are several factors, however, that interfere with or delay the development of oral language. In remote, rural areas preschool children lack opportunities for development of verbal intelligence and oral language skills. This is manifested in lower vocabulary, less oral production, and the lack of syntactic sentencing skills.

Also, recurring ear infections, unidentified and untreated in preschool years have the following consequents: 1 auditory dysacuity, 2. auditory discrimination problems, 3. a lack of phoneme awareness, and 4. poor listening skills. The lack of phoneme awareness is a correlate of oral language delays and an intermediate predictor of reading difficulties. This has been reported in several papers in this conference.

In various countries throughout the world, where students are instructed and expected to read and write English as a second language, the same "lack of phoneme awareness" underlies their reading and writing difficulties. Some of the languages have a greater number of consonant phonemes, and a lesser number of vowel phonemes. These differences account for the "lack of phoneme awareness" in bilingualism. In contrast to native language English speakers the acquisition of English reading skills for bilinguals is delayed from 3 to 5 years throughout their school years. This is true in Ireland, throughout Polynesia and Micronesia, the Philippine Islands, India, and various Asian regions. Students who lack phoneme awareness, whatever its source, will encounter difficulties with word recognition and word analysis skills.

I wish to raise these questions with you, "What are the implications of this knowledge? Should there be family-health and public health efforts in preschool years to identify and treat ear infections, to avoid the subsequent "lack of phoneme awareness"? Is there an assumption that all first-grade 6-year old children will have adequate oral language development to acquire reading skills?

Should there be better development of oral language skills in the language of instruction or in second-language English, prior to formal reading instruction?"

The reading difficulties evolving from oral language problems may be identified as functional reading problems. Those of you who are knowledgeable about dyslexia also know that there are cerebral dysfunctions that can interfere with visual recognition of the orthography, that is, the graphic 'signals' of the language. The consistency and predictability of the visual "signs" becomes critical for students' acquisition of "sight" vocabulary. These phonemic and visual-graphic problems in reading define two types of dyslexia, eidetic and phonetic ; and two types of mental processing, simultaneous and successive.

For many years the attention of reading teachers and researchers has been focused on the component skills in reading, on the structural features of the oral and printed language, and on the cognitive purposes of reading. I include myself in these groups and would defend those technical concerns as appropriate. Reading, however, is not simply a cognitive, cerebral process. The processing of nouns and verbs, adjectives and adverbs occur in different cerebral nerve tracts. Brain scans (electrical tomography), for the mapping of cerebral blood flow during reading and other mental tasks have also increased our knowledge of the cerebral involvements in these tasks.

As reading teachers we have been aware of happy and unhappy emotional experiences as byproducts of reading successes and reading failures. But, we are very uninformed about the involvement of the "soma", that is, the subcerebral consequents. These refer to the mood states and the sentiments created by reading the words, the adjectives and adverbs, and the representations of schema and themes in the text.

Rather than dwelling on the sensory and cerebral aspects of reading I wish to shift our attention to the emotional aspects. Have you ever observed readers, emotionally absorbed in their reading, smiling, laughing aloud, or showing the effects of stress or anxiety in facial muscles, and other muscle groups? Fear and apprehension, happiness, conquest, adventure, mastery (over treachery), love, affection and belonging, are all emotional, motivational factors for reading.

These nuances of emotional experiences during the course of reading are the consequents of both cerebral and subcerebral processes. Vicariation is the ability of the reader to personally identify with characters and events in a story. This a cognitive ability; however, it also enables the reader's emotional involvement. There are subcerebral processes occurring in the immune, endocrine and autonomic systems that produce the emotional experiences in reading. [neuropeptides, endorphin, monocytes] The components of reading are experienced in mind and body; psyche and soma.

Do you also know students who hate reading, and regard reading assignments as painful and punitive? These are also whole-body responses to reading. If they lead to an avoidance and defiance of reading assignments they also become behavioral patterns for defensive adjustment. These consequents are then associated with students' alienation from curricula and school.

Now I wish to raise these questions, "What are the implications of this knowledge about the emotional aspects of reading for our reading instruction?" Should we continue to regard the emotional concomitants of reading as unpredictable byproducts of teaching and learning? Or, should affective education be systematically incorporated in reading instruction?

While on this topic I would like to bring your attention to the interactions of culture and emotion. These have relevance to teaching and learning. Emotions are not merely internal for individual students; they also prevail in the "climate" of schools and classrooms. For example, in the Philippines there is an adage, translated as follows, "You don't have to love me, but please don't shame me." This is presented in behalf of Filipino students. In contrast, there are also cultures in which the use of shame, and the avoidance of shame, are powerful influences in student-teacher interactions. The acquisition of reading is embedded in cultural and subcultural values. It is also a critical requirement for participation in subsequent curricula. Finally, it is significant in determining the internal, socio-emotional adjustment of the person.

The reading preferences and leisure-reading choices of adult readers may evolve from pervasive emotional needs; however, they also stem from social motives. Some reading choices are obviously related to membership in specific social groups. For example, members of book clubs may obtain primary satisfactions from the actual reading; however, they also receive secondary satisfactions from opportunities for oral discussion, that is to report their knowledge, perceptions and interpretations to other members. I will offer an answer to the next obvious question. The implication is that teachers of reading and literature should develop discussion-leader skills; so their students will realize such secondary satisfactions, early in their reading development.

After considering physical, emotional and social aspects of reading it seems logical to consider the effects of reading on beliefs and values in the minds of students. Reading teachers are mostly concerned with the development of skills, and relatively unconcerned about the contents of basal grade-level readers. In contrast, teachers of literature, history, and the social sciences are critically involved in the selections of course texts. The choices of course texts may also be a committee activity. The texts in these courses have selections of informational and doctrinal content. Whether intended or unintended they determine the extent of knowledge and shape the values and beliefs of students.

Teachers and texts indoctrinate students. They may be regionally or nationally biased. For example, in the United States there is a regional bias pertaining to teaching the history of the Civil War or the War of the States. There are significant differences between schools in the southern states and schools in the northern states pertaining to the informational and doctrinal contents of texts. Educators have been aware of the bias. To the best of my knowledge, however, there have never been any national efforts to change the regional bias. The question that I wish to raise among participants at this Asian Conference on Reading, "What are teachers' and authors' responsibilities as they pertain to the indoctrination of students?"

I wish to close this presentation with a brief reference to technological advances and their applications in reading. About 40 years ago there were "night shifts" of proof readers employed by banks, to read the account numbers on the faces of checks. This was very tedious. It was dramatically changed by printing numbers with magnetic ink, enabling machine reading. A similar procedure has been developed for reading the magnetic strip on credit cards, and checking their validity.

More recently "bar codes" were invented, so that sales clerks and cashiers merely pass the printed bar code across the reader. And the machine reader then speaks the costs of individual items, the total purchase, the amount tendered and the change due. Reading the bar codes also enables an automated stock inventory for the merchant.

About 30 years ago I worked on a computer simulation of reading. The flow chart for the program was as follows: 1. input orthography, 2. decompose to minimal graphic units, 3. apply graphic-phonemic association rules, and 4. recompose in phonemic string output. By using a monitor for the print display and a speech synthesizer for the phoneme strings, I was able to instrument computer-automated reading for beginning reading instruction. It would be relatively easy and inexpensive for you to develop similar reading instruction in most of your school situations. (and in most of your native languages?).

About 3 years ago an English-Japanese translation program was developed. This has been used in international business, and document publishing applications. These two developments, automated reading and language translation programs, have potential for significant changes in education; and specifically for reading education in Asian countries. Their potentials, however, have not been systematically considered.

I am not implying that these technical advances should be, available in remote regional areas in Asia. There are practical and logistic problems that limit their distribution. On the other hand computer-assisted instruction and computer-automated reading may already be at your thresholds.

My final questions are as follows "What are the possibilities of using these technical advances to reading instruction in our schools?" "Will it be similar to the use of calculators for arithmetic?" and, "What technical changes in the applications of reading might we anticipate in the future?"

I appreciated this opportunity to learn about your concerns and insights pertaining to reading. On behalf of the students you serve, we wish you continuing success.

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